HANDBOOK OF RURAL SOCIAL RESOURCES

Henry Israel and Benson Y. Landis

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HANDBOOK OF RURAL SOCIAL RESOURCES

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HANDBOOK OF RURAL SOCIAL RESOURCES

EDITED BY

HENRY ISRAEL

AND

BENSON Y. LANDIS

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CONTENTS

PART I

PAGE

INTRODUCTION ix

CHAPTER

I THE RURAL POPULATION..... 1

C. E. Lively.

Increase and Decrease of Rural Population—Sex Proportions—Age Distribution—Race and Nationality—Occupation.

II FARMERS' STANDARDS OF LIVING..... 13

E. L. Kirkpatrick.

Composition of Households and Families Studied—Classifications of Goods Used—Value of Family Living Furnished by the Farm—Family Living Purchased—Total Value of Family Living—How the Total Value of Family Living is Distributed—Comparisons of the Distribution of Goods Used by Farm Families and Industrial Families—Variations in the Distribution of Values of the Principal Groups of Goods with Increase in the Total Value of All Goods—The Distribution of the Value of Goods Used as an Index of Standard of Living.

III THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL ART..... 26

Anna Mansfield Clark.

Drama—Religious Drama—Art Extension in Illinois—The Landscape Background—Music.

IV RURAL EDUCATION..... 37

Ernest Burnham.

The Public Schools—Higher Institutions—Government Agencies — Voluntary Organizations — Research and Publicity.

CHAPTER PAGE

V RURAL SOCIAL WORK 48

Leroy A. Ramsdell.

What Is Social Work?—The Availability of Social Work to Rural Communities—Emerging Problems.

VI THE RURAL WORK OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH 60

E. V. O'Hara.

Early Developments—Rural Catholic Education—Policies—The Program of the National Catholic Welfare Conference.

VII THE SITUATION AMONG PROTESTANT RURAL CHURCHES 66

Ralph S. Adams.

Statistics of Rural Churches—The Work of Church Organizations.

VIII ORGANIZED RURAL RECREATION 75

Lee F. Hanmer.

The Formation of Recreational Organizations—The Training of Play Leaders—The Baseball Situation—Typical Projects.

IX FARM WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS 85

Grace E. Frysinger.

Early Organizations of Farm Women—Present Day Conditions and Organizations—Trends in Administration—Changes in Form of Organization—Trends in Function.

X NATIONAL AGRICULTURAL LEGISLATION, 1921-25 94

Robert Samuel Fletcher.

Tariff Acts of 1921 and 1922—Agricultural Credit—The Capper-Volstead Act, 1922—The Packers and Stockyards Act, 1921—The Grain Futures Act, 1922—The Cotton Standards Act, 1923—The Butter Standard Act, 1923—The Filled Milk Bill, 1923—Establishment of the Bureau of

CHAPTER PAGE

Dairying, 1924—The Federal Highways Act, 1921—Freight Rate Investigations, 1925—The Purnell Act, 1925.

XI THE COÖPERATIVE MARKETING MOVEMENT 107
Benson Y. Landis.
The Extent of Coöperative Marketing—Types of Coöperative Organizations—Accomplishments and Limitations—The Social Aspects of Coöperative Marketing.

XII FARM CREDIT AND FARM TAXATION..... 119
Norman J. Wall.
The Demand for More Capital and the Agencies Supplying it—Taxation Problems.

XIII AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION, PRICES AND INCOME, 1919-25..... 126
L. H. Bean.
Agricultural Production Since 1919—The Price Readjustment—The Purchasing Power of the Farmer's Dollar and of His Products—Income from Agricultural Production—The Rates of Return on All Capital and Management Employed in Agriculture—Reward for Operators' Capital and Management—Reward for the Farmer's Effort.

XIV SOME AGRICULTURAL POLICIES OF EUROPEAN NATIONS..... 143
Asher Hobson.
The Battle of Wheat in Italy—The English Situation—The Russian Program—Land Reform in the Balkans—American Interest.

PART II

I THE PROGRAMS OF NATIONAL AGENCIES ENGAGED IN RURAL SOCIAL WORK..... 153
American Country Life Association and the National Council of Agencies Engaged in Rural

PAGE

Social Work—Activities of the Association—The National Council of Social Agencies—Officials of the National Council—American Child Health Association—American Farm Bureau Federation—American Home Economics Association—American Library Association—American National Red Cross—Board of Home Missions and Church Extension of the Methodist Episcopal Church; Department of Rural Work—Board of National Missions, Presbyterian Church of the U. S. A., Town and Country Department—Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America—Girl Scouts—Home Missions Council—National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association; Rural Communities Department—National Child Labor Committee—National Catholic Welfare Conference—National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Association; Country Life Department—National Council of the Young Men's Christian Association; County Work Department—National Education Association; Rural Education Department—National Grange—National Organization for Public Health Nursing—Playground and Recreation Association of America—Russell Sage Foundation; Recreation Department—U. S. Bureau of Education; Rural Education Division—U. S. Department of Agriculture; Division of Farm Population and Rural Life—U. S. Department of Agriculture; Extension Service—U. S. Department of Labor; Children's Bureau—U. S. Public Health Service.

INDEX 197

INTRODUCTION

This handbook is designed as a reference work for a variety of rural workers. It comprises data about many rural interests and is published as a source of concise information for teachers of rural social science, teachers and administrators of public schools, extension workers, social workers, ministers, church administrators, etc.

Part I consists of interpretations of developments in rural life within roughly the past five years by specialists who have made a special study of the particular interest which they discuss. Responsibility for interpretation is in each case that of the person presenting the material.

Part II comprises statements of the programs and present services of the national agencies who are members of the National Council of Agencies Engaged In Rural Social Work. It is a revision of a compilation of information published about these agencies in 1920, and which is now out of print.

The purpose of the work is to bring together data that has hitherto been widely scattered, to sum up the recent achievements and developments in rural life. It is proposed to revise it in from three to five years, if the reception to this volume indicates that it is serviceable and is sufficiently used.

A final word should be said to indicate that this volume is the product of coöperation on the part of many individuals and agencies. A group of students of special topics generously gave of their time without compensation in preparing the statements which appear in Part II. Twenty-six agencies supplied information for Part II. The American Country Life Association and the Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America collaborated in planning the project and in assembling and editing the

material. The University of Chicago Press, as publishers, and J. J. Little & Ives Company, as printers, rendered assistance which helped to make the appearance of this book possible. On the whole, this volume is at least a modest demonstration of successful coöperative work between a number of agencies and individuals.

HENRY ISRAEL,
BENSON Y. LANDIS.

HANDBOOK OF RURAL SOCIAL RESOURCES

I

THE RURAL POPULATION

C. E. Lively
Professor of Rural Sociology, Ohio State University

In the United States the term "rural" is commonly used to designate that group of some fifty million people who live in the open country or in places of less than 2,500 population. This rural element which once constituted the whole population has been shrinking with each census until in 1920 it comprised only 48.6 per cent of the total population. The change has been chiefly due to the rapid growth of cities, but it has also been due in part to a change in the definition of what constitutes rural population, since it was not until 1910 that the Census Bureau adopted 2,500 as the upper limit of the rural group. Used in this sense the term rural population does not designate a natural grouping but represents an arbitrary classification of somewhat dissimilar elements. It includes a group of incorporated villages of less than 2,500 population, which remains in rather constant proportion to the general population, comprising 8.5 per cent of the total in 1920. This group shows such distinctive characteristics as to make it seem advisable to treat villages as a separate element in the rural population.[1]

The remainder of the rural population, comprising 40.1 per cent of the total population, is divided between unincorporated

[1] Fry so concludes in his *A Census Analysis of American Villages*, pp. 161-2.

villages and open country. The exact size of the first of these groups is unknown. It has been estimated in Ohio to be 5.2 per cent of the total population, and probably does not vary greatly through the several states. This leaves the second, or open country group, comprising about thirty per cent of the total population, by far the largest single element in the rural population.

This open country population is often designated as farm population, but statistically the two terms are not synonymous. Farm population [2] includes all persons who live on farms and all farm laborers living outside incorporated places. Now it is by no means true that all persons who live on farms are engaged in farming. Neither is it true that all the people who live in the open country are on farms. Further, it is probable that the number of those not living on farms is increasing and that it will continue to grow with suburban development. Then again, we have a certain percentage of the farm population living on farms within the limits of incorporated cities and villages. So it is that in 1920 the farm population comprised 29.9 per cent of the total population and, excluding the quarter of a million of these who lived within urban limits, there must have been a group of five per cent or more of the rural population living in the open country but not on farms.

INCREASE AND DECREASE OF RURAL POPULATION

There has been no trend more characteristic of recent times than the rapid and widespread growth of cities. The claim that a heavy draft has been put upon the rural population for this growth has been the subject of much investigation and discussion. Gillette [3] has showed the comparative rates of increase of urban and rural populations by decades since 1800. For these thirteen decades the average rate of urban increase has been 59 per cent while the average rate of rural increase has been 24.5 per cent or only 41.5 per cent as rapid as urban growth. The rate of rural increase has progressively declined

[2] The Fourteenth Census, 1920, made a separate report on farm population for the first time. See Vol. V, ch. XIV.

[3] J. M. Gillette, *Rural Sociology*, New York, Macmillan Co., 1923, p. 83.

from 35 per cent during the decade 1800-1810 to 5.4 per cent during the decade 1910-20.

As may be supposed, the relative decline of rural population has not been uniform throughout the country but is marked by differential rates of increase and decrease. Thus, while forty-four states lost rural population as relative to the urban population between 1910-1920, only fifteen states lost rural population in the absolute sense. That is, the percentage which the rural population is of the total population of the state declined in forty-four states. But in only fifteen states were there actually fewer persons living in the rural districts in 1920 than in 1910. The states of this latter group, which numbered only seven for the period 1900-1910, and of which New York, Ohio, Illinois and Iowa are typical, are for the most part located in the northeastern and north central sections, where urban industry and advanced agricultural methods have been most highly developed. The percentage loss in rural population in these states ranged from a minimum 0.9 per cent in Ohio to a maximum of 15.3 per cent in Nevada. During the same period, 1910-20, the urban population of these states grew at a minimum rate of 10.7 per cent in Vermont and at a maximum rate of 66.2 per cent in Michigan.

Viewing these rural population losses from the standpoint of smaller local areas, we find that everywhere some counties or townships are increasing and others are decreasing in population, though the increases may come at such a slow rate as to show a relative loss when compared with the urban population of the same areas. Gillette states that "during the last census decade, about 70 per cent of the 3,000 counties, and probably 50 per cent or more of the scores of thousands of townships had fewer rural inhabitants in 1920 than in 1910." [4] In Ohio during the same period, out of a total of 1,317 rural townships, 315 townships (23.9 per cent) showed an increase in open country population; 998 townships (75.8 per cent) showed a decrease and 4 townships (0.3 per cent) remained stationary.[5]

[4] *Publications of the American Sociological Society,* Vol. XIX, p. 136.
[5] C. E. Lively, "Increases and Decreases in the Open Country Population of Ohio, 1910-1920," *Journal of Farm Economics,* Vol. VI, pp. 248-53.

Considering the same question of differential increase and decrease, not from the standpoint of geography but from the standpoint of type of place, we find that here also the general rate hides wide variations. Thus while the rural United States grew 5.4 per cent during the decade 1910-1920, the incorporated villages therein included increased 9.7 per cent and the remainder of the rural population increased only 1.9 per cent. We have no measure of the comparative rates of increase of the populations of the unincorporated villages and open country for the nation as a whole. Computations have been made for Ohio, and here we find that for the same period the rural population decreased 0.9 per cent, the incorporated villages increased 4.6 per cent, the unincorporated villages increased 11.6 per cent and the open country decreased 5.2 per cent.[6] It appears to be true that the villages as a class; with the exception of those in New England,[7] are losing population only relatively; and although large numbers of villages are declining, the regions of greatest absolute loss are to be found in the open country.

Any adequate explanation of the decline of rural population involves consideration of two general propositions or problems: (1) the differential rates of natural increase of rural and urban populations, and (2) migration to and from the rural and urban sections. Let us consider them in order.

It is difficult to secure accurate comparisons of the natural increase of urban and rural populations because of the present state of the vital statistics, particularly those of the rural population. The natural increase of a population is measured by the surplus of births over deaths. To be sure, we possess crude rates of births and deaths among the rural population for the registration areas, but so long as we are unable to secure from our census significant age and sex analyses comparable to those available for cities, and so long as our vital statistics include all communities under 10,000 as "rural," much of the effort at comparative analyses of urban and rural vital statistics will be rendered useless.

[6] *Ibid.*
[7] *Cf.* J. M. Gillette, *Rural Sociology*, New York: Macmillan Co., 1923, pp. 465, 467.

For such comparative studies adjusted and specific rates only are significant.

Investigators are fairly well agreed, however, upon certain conclusions about birth and death rates: (1) That the birth rate is everywhere on the decline, and that it began to fall first in the cities, but is now falling almost as rapidly among the rural population, though the rural rate still remains considerably higher than the urban rate. (2) That the death rate has also generally declined, and that the urban rate has declined more rapidly than the rural rate, but that the rural rate still remains decidedly the lower. (3) That as a result of this comparative condition of the birth and death rates the rural sections have a greater surplus of births over deaths each year, *i.e.* a greater natural increase than the urban sections.[8]

The relatively large proportion of children in the rural population is a matter of common knowledge. In centers of 2,500 population and over, in 1920, 19 per cent of the population was under ten years of age. In the farm population 25.7 per cent was under ten years of age. This means that in a typical city of 10,000 people there would be 670 fewer children under ten years of age than in a similar sized group of farm population.[9] Thompson [10] finds that in 1920 there were 391 children under five for every 1,000 women aged fifteen to forty-four in the urban population, and 580 in the rural population, thus indicating a 48.3 per cent excess of children under five among rural women of child-bearing age as compared with urban women of the same age. These differences are subject, of course, to great variation for different localities. For Maine the corresponding figures are 378 and 505; for West Virginia, 400 and 716.

A number of reasons have been assigned for this higher rate of child production in rural districts.[11] The more significant of these appear to be that (1) farming is a domestic occupation and is much dominated by home ideals and attitudes, which in-

[8] *Cf.* E. B. Reuter, *Population Problems,* pp. 152-3 247-8; J. M. Gillette, *Rural Sociology,* pp. 84-88; W. S. Thompson, "Rural Demography," *Publications of the American Sociological Society,* Vol. XIX, pp. 152-5.

[9] C. J. Galpin, "Can the Farm Family Afford Modern Institutions?" *Proceedings of the American Country Life Association,* 1923, p. 49.

[10] *Op. cit.,* p. 157.

[11] Gillette, *Op. cit.,* p. 86; Thompson, *Op. cit.,* p. 159.

variably include children. (2) In the country there is comparatively little social competition in consuming goods which tends to reduce the number of children per family. (3) A larger proportion of rural people marry, and they marry younger than is the case in cities. (4) It costs less to rear children in the country, partly because a child's labor on the farm makes him an economic asset after an age of eight or ten is attained. It may be remarked that all of these conditions are subject to change and that with the possible exception of the first the progressive urbanization of the country is reducing the effectiveness of these and other factors to maintain the high birth rate of an earlier day.

From the time cities were established their death rates appear to have been higher than the death rates for the rural sections. Early cities could maintain their numbers only through migration from the outlying areas, but the development of sanitary science has enabled modern cities rapidly to lower their death rates and greatly to reduce the hazard due to unsafe water, milk and general lack of sanitation. In the meantime the rural death rate has also declined, but much less rapidly than the urban rate which is now in some areas lower than the rural rate, if only crude rates be considered. However, urban populations are weighted in the vigorous age groups of 15 to 45 while rural populations have an undue proportion of persons in the age groups above 60, two facts which make the death rates appear more nearly equal than they really are. It is true that the country has been less affected by sanitary science, that first class medical and hospital facilities are not within easy reach of country people, that the common physical defects are as numerous there as anywhere else and less frequently cared for, that poverty, ignorance and filth play their accustomed roles.[12] But in spite of these facts country people continue to live longer than city people. Indeed, recent data[13] point to the conclusion that, ranked on the basis of the survival rate of the population, rural states come first, semi-industrialized states second, highly urbanized states third and cities last. Apparently there can be but

[12] *Cf.* Geo. E. Vincent, *Annual Report of the Rockefeller Foundation*, 1924, pp. 33-4.
[13] Thompson, *Op. cit.*, p. 153.

little doubt that there are survival values inherent in country life which are not dependent upon organized public health work. There can also be but little doubt, when urban experience is considered, that equal application of public health measures would still further reduce mortality rates in the rural districts.

It is clear from this comparison of the rural and urban birth and death rates that natural population increase in the rural districts is much greater than in the urban districts. For the period 1910-20 it has been calculated to be 7.6 persons per thousand for the urban and 15.2 persons per thousand for the rural, or approximately twice as great for the rural districts as for the urban districts.[14] Clearly, if the country retained all of its natural increase it would not only soon outdistance the city in size and rate of growth, but the country would soon become seriously overcrowded from the standpoint of the demands of agricultural industry. The greater portion of this natural increase does not remain in the country, however. From 1910 to 1920 the rural districts increased by only 1,599,871 persons while their natural increase plus three-quarters of a million immigration is estimated to have been 7,850,000 persons. Thus we have a quantitative estimate of the cityward migration during the decade. It amounted to about 6,150,000 persons and constituted 45.2 per cent of the total urban increase for the period.[15] The comparative rates of increase and decrease for villages and open country indicate that the larger part of this migration came from the farms.

Much discussion has centered about the causes of this huge population movement away from the country districts. While there is an endless variety of such causes, expressed by the migrant on a particularistic and by the statistician on a generalistic level, it will be helpful to bear in mind that the fundamental causes are economic in nature. The natural increase of rural population, the improved standard of living in the country, made possible through a commercialized agriculture, and the increased

[14] J. M. Gillette, *Publications of the American Sociological Society,* Vol. XIX, p. 142.
[15] *Ibid.,* pp. 141-2, 189.

production efficiency of farm methods [16] have all contributed to create a surplus rural population which moves elsewhere in search of real or fancied opportunity. (I say "fancied" opportunity because undoubtedly many rural people, ignorant of the disadvantages of urban life, fail to recognize the advantages of their rural status and effect a change which they later regret but are unable to undo.) It is thus the younger people, and particularly women, seeking educational and vocational opportunity as well as a more stimulating life, drift into the towns and cities and fail to return, leaving a dearth of young people generally, and of women in particular, in the country districts from whence they came.

But in addition to these fundamental economic causes there are numerous incidental causes, mainly psychological, of population movement away from the country. I refer to such factors as insufficient social activity in the country, conveniences of living in the city, and the like. These, combined with the very common opinion, frequently instilled by parents, that country life is a hard and inferior type of life, determine an attitude favorable to migration cityward as soon as the opportunity presents itself.

Among those who do not join this great migration, at least two classes may be distinguished: (1) those who are less socially minded than those who leave, or who have greater personal inertia, and consequently are less disturbed by the relative isolation and simplicity of country life, and (2) those who are dissatisfied and desirous of leaving but to whom the opportunity has not yet presented itself. From the standpoint of rural organization it should be recognized that either group is comparatively difficult to work with and that each presents a somewhat different set of problems. In areas where loss of numbers has been severe and rapid one may encounter numerous problems of social readjustment involving depleted economic resources, declining institutions and organizations, anemic social life, and mental attitudes of dissatisfaction and helplessness.

[16] Young calculates that the efficiency of farm labor has increased 82 percent in grain production during the 50 years following 1870. See Cornell Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin 426, p. 7.

Much investigation of rural population movement is needed. Interest in the movement to cities has tended to obscure other movements which are numerous and significant. Inter-state and inter-regional movements, though declining, are still important. Others which should receive attention are inter-community movements and movements within the same community. There is also need of following the rural dweller to the city to determine what happens to him there. We have said much about those who succeed, but no comprehensive study has been made of the social levels found by rural migrants to the cities, or of the cultural conflicts and maladjustments which inevitably result from a mingling of the urban and rural mores.[17]

SEX PROPORTIONS

In the total population the sexes are about equal in numbers, there being 104 males per 100 females in 1920. Various geographic regions and population classes differ markedly from this general average, however. Villages stand at one extreme with 94.5 males per 100 females, cities approximate more nearly the national average with 100.4, while the farm population stands at the other extreme with 109.1 males per 100 females. Villages vary from 88 males per 100 females in the Middle Atlantic group of states to 105.2 in the Mountain and Pacific groups,[18] and the farm population varies from 103.6 in the South Atlantic to 126.6 in the Pacific group. Specific local areas vary much more. In the farm population of Wake County, North Carolina, there are 102.8 males and in King County, Washington, 132.9 males per 100 females.[19]

In general the surplus of males in the rural population is greatest in the frontier states, and in sections where there is a high percentage of foreign born population, or farm laborer population. Combinations of these factors produce great surpluses. Thus, among the farm laborer population, which is

[17] The *Survey Graphic* for March, 1925, represents a journalistic attempt to picture the rural negro in New York City.

[18] Fry, *Op. cit.*, p. 163.

[19] C. J. Galpin and Veda B. Larson, *Farm Population of Selected Counties*, pp. 161, 215.

largely foreign born, in certain counties in Wisconsin, North Dakota and Washington there are two to three or more males to every female. The sexes are nearest equal among farm owners, though there is a surplus of males even in this group, and among the rural negro population. It is clear that in the movement away from the farm the woman is more concerned than the man. It appears that she leaves the tenant or laborer family more often than the owner family, and the reverse ratio of the sexes in villages suggests that she tarries there longer than the male, or more often drifts back to the village when urban life becomes impossible.

AGE DISTRIBUTION

Differences in the age distribution of rural and urban populations have already been remarked. The statistics of rural age grouping are too inadequate to permit detailed comparisons. It is clear, however, that there are marked age differences. In general the rural population shows a higher percentage of children and old people and a lower percentage of adults between the ages of 20 and 45. Cities possess almost a ten per cent excess in this last group.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION
(1920 Census)

AGE	RURAL	URBAN
All ages	100.0	100.0
Under 5	12.3	9.7
5- 9	12.3	9.3
10-14	11.6	8.6
15-19	9.7	8.2
20-44	33.8	42.7
45 and over	20.2	21.3

The age distribution by class and geographic area varies considerably. The northern and northeastern sections possess the smallest percentages of children and the largest percentages of old people while the reverse is true of the southern states. Comparable figures for the farm and village groups are not available. Such as we have show a higher percentage of persons

under 21 and a lower percentage of old people in the farm population than in the rural population at large. Individual counties show extremes indicating that the farm population is subject to age variations so great as to warrant classifying the distribution as abnormal.

Available figures[20] indicate that the population of villages presents an age distribution more nearly like that of the cities than of the farms. One fact sets villages off sharply from cities, however. That fact is their large percentage of elderly people. Apparently villages have from six to seven per cent more persons 45 years of age and over than either farm or city populations.

RACE AND NATIONALITY

The rural population is more homogeneous than the urban when race and nationality are considered. Only 6.5 per cent of the rural population is foreign-born; 79.5 per cent are native white. Of the total foreign-born population only 24.6 per cent are in rural territory. Of these by far the greater portion are peoples from northern and western Europe, commonly called the older immigrant group, and they are located chiefly in the north central and northwestern states. There are many other groups, such as the Mexicans of the southwest and the Asiatics of the Pacific states, but in numbers they are relatively few.

The Negro forms about 13 per cent of the rural population and is a decreasing element. The negro birth rate is higher than the white, but the high death rate makes the rate of natural increase less than that of the white population. The Negro movement away from the soil appears to be relatively as great. The Negro migration northward has been great in recent years, and while it is chiefly toward the cities, many of this race locate in the rural districts of the north, particularly in the villages.

OCCUPATION

Of the fifty-one million comprising the rural population more than thirty-one million (61 per cent of the rural population) are

[20] Fry, *Op. cit.*, pp. 164-5.

classed as farm population. This means, merely, that they live on farms, or are farm laborers living in unincorporated territory. There is probably an increasing number of persons living on farms who are not engaged in farming. This is particularly true in the neighborhood of industrial centers.

We have no complete occupational analysis of the remaining twenty million of the rural population (39 per cent) who live outside incorporated places but do not live on farms. We do know that nearly nine million of them live in incorporated villages, and a recent study [21] shows that of these, 29.9 per cent are engaged in agriculture (the percentage would no doubt be greater had the census been taken during the summer rather than during the winter months), 32.9 per cent are engaged in manufacture, 10.8 per cent in trade, 8.6 per cent in transportation, 5.1 per cent in clerical work, 5.7 per cent in public and professional service, 3.7 per cent in domestic and personal service and 3.3 per cent in mineral extraction. A complete occupational analysis of the rural population yet remains to be made. Until it is done we lack one of our best means of understanding rural society.

[21] Fry, *Op. cit.*, p. 164.

II

FARMERS' STANDARDS OF LIVING

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The repeated use of the term "standard of living" by those who are proposing solutions of the problems of agriculture calls for a careful consideration of the economic goods which contribute to the farm family's living. The expression itself arises several pertinent questions. In the first place, what are the basic factors or elements of farm family living? Next, at what costs are these elements provided? Finally, what is the distribution of the cost among the different groups of elements constituting a family living.

The figures here presented as a means of throwing some light on these questions represent averages of the estimates obtained by the survey method from 2,883 farm families of selected localities of nine states.[1] The quantities, in so far as possible, and the prices of all goods and services consumed yearly by the farm family constituted the basis of all the estimates obtained. Where quantities of various goods could not be given, estimated values of or expenditures for these goods were taken instead.

The estimates obtained by the field workers were usually given by the homemaker, although sometimes with help from the operator or from an adult son or daughter. Typical farm homes within the locality chosen for study were visited, that is, selec-

[1] The Massachusetts Agricultural College, the Connecticut Agricultural College, the New York State College of Agriculture, the Ohio Wesleyan University, the Iowa State College, the Kansas State Agricultural College, the University of Missouri, the University of Kentucky, the Alabama Polytechnic Institute and the Alabama Woman's College coöperated in the field work for this study. The schedule used for collecting the data was prepared jointly by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and the Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture.

tion of homes of any one size or any one level of living was avoided. Each home included in the study had an adult male acting as the farm operator and an adult female acting as the home-maker. The number of sons and daughters in the homes visited ranged from 0 to 6 or more, of different ages.

Selected localities in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Ohio, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Kentucky and Alabama constitute the units of study from which the results were obtained. Practically all field work was done between July 1, 1923, and September 30, 1924. Estimates in each instance were for goods and services used during the year just preceding the visit of the field worker. Since price levels changed very little between July 1, 1923, and September 30, 1924, data from the separate localities studied were tabulated as being typical for the year ending December 31, 1923.

COMPOSITION OF HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES

The term "household" means all the persons sheltered in one dwelling who eat, usually, at a common table. A family includes parents and the sons and daughters who are at home or who while away at college are supported from the family purse. Thus, the household may include in addition to the family, relatives, hired help, boarders and others. Relatives and others are taken into account in all costs when supported from a common income. When not supported from a common income, they are excluded under all except food and rental costs. Hired help and boarders are included under food and rental costs, only.

Though smaller than size of household, size of family is accepted as a satisfactory basis for direct comparisons of family living. Variations in the average size of household follow rather closely variations in the average size of family for the several localities studied. From a social and from an economic viewpoint, size of family seems to be equally preferable as a basis for comparison.

CLASSIFICATION OF GOODS USED

The values of goods and services used are tabulated by groups classified on the basis of their logical relation to the standard of living. The object of the classification used is twofold: (1) To enable the reader to make direct comparisons of the values of goods for specific purposes and, (2) to afford a more satisfactory index to the standard of living than is afforded by the total value of all goods. The main groups are food, clothing, rent, furnishings, operation, maintenance of health, advancement, personal, insurance (life and health), and unclassified. Food includes meats, dairy products, honey, flour, meal, vegetables and fruit furnished by the farm valued at prices half way between what they would have brought had they been sold and what they would have cost had they been purchased on the local market. Under this head are also included groceries and other food products purchased.

Clothing includes all articles of wearing apparel actually purchased for all members of the farm family during the year studied. Clothing values are arrived at by adding for each member of the family the costs as given by the homemaker of the separate articles of clothing which had been purchased, except in a few cases where estimates of total costs of clothing for the different persons in the family were taken. The few used garments received as gifts in several families are valued at what they were considered worth in comparison with new garments of similar kinds.

Use of the farm house for the year is charged at ten per cent of the value of the house, in so far as this value could be determined by the field agent. This rental value is intended to cover taxes, insurance and repairs on the house and to pay six per cent interest on the investment.

Furniture and furnishings include musical instruments, furniture, pictures, floor covering, bedding, linens, tableware, utensils and equipment for sewing, cleaning, laundry and canning purchased during the year. Depreciation on furnishings in the home is not taken into account.

Operation goods include fuel—furnished by the farm or purchased—soap, cleansers, and matches purchased, hired help in the household, charges for laundry sent out, and telephone service. They also include depreciation and gasoline, oil, repairs, license, insurance and other accessories for the automobile where these are chargeable to household and family use. Depreciation on the automobile is charged according to the number of years the car had been used. The proportion of the total operation cost of the automobile for household use was estimated when the data were obtained.

Goods used for the maintenance of health cover doctor's, nurse's and dentist's services, hospital bills and medicine of all kinds purchased during the year. Advancement goods include board and lodging at high school or college, school and college text books, supplies and tuition, reading matter in the home, organization and club dues, sports, vacation trips, church support and benevolences. Personal goods cover barber's fees, toilet articles, gifts, candy and tobacco. Insurance goods include premiums paid on life, endowment, health or accident policies during the year. Unclassified goods include burials, cemetery lots and other goods, the purpose of which is not specified. The classification outlined above has been evolved from the many factors or elements reported as the economic goods of family living. The value of goods furnished by the farm and the value of goods provided by direct purchase represent an additional cross-classification.

VALUE OF FAMILY LIVING FURNISHED BY THE FARM

The average value of all family living furnished by the farm for the 2,883 families ranges from $428 in Schoharie county, New York, to $833 in selected localities of Missouri (Table 1). The average value for all families is $634. This average includes foods, $395, use of the farm house (10 per cent of the arbitrary value of the house) $187, and fuel $52. Food constitutes the highest percentage of the value of all goods furnished, the proportion being 62.4 for food, 29.5 for use of the house

and 8.1 for fuel (Table 2). Alabama presents the highest average value of foods furnished, a higher proportion than that of any other state. Schoharie county, New York, shows the lowest average value of foods furnished, $224, or 52.4 per cent of the value of all goods furnished.

TABLE I

The average value per family of goods furnished by the farm and purchased, and the proportions which the values furnished and purchased bear to total goods used, for the year ending December 31, 1923. Two thousand eight hundred and eighty-three farm families of selected localities of the United States. Owners (2,014), tenants (808) and hired men (61).

States	No. of families	Size of		Total value of all goods	Furnished by the farm		Purchased	
		Family	Household	Amount $	Amt. $	Percent of total	Amt. $	Percent of total
		Pers'ns	Pers'ns					
Massachusetts	81	3.8	4.6	1,948.1	704.3	36.1	1,243.8	63.9
Connecticut	110	4.3	4.7	1,492.6	533.5	35.8	959.1	64.2
New York	498	3.6	4.1	1,077.6	428.0	39.7	649.6	60.3
Ohio	383	4.1	4.3	1,540.8	639.8	41.5	901.0	58.5
Iowa	472	4.4	4.5	1,669.2	692.8	41.5	976.4	58.5
Kansas	406	4.4	4.7	1,492.0	604.9	40.5	887.1	59.5
Missouri	178	4.0	4.4	1,896.8	832.7	43.9	1,064.1	56.1
Kentucky	370	4.2	4.6	1,488.3	650.1	43.7	838.2	56.3
Alabama	385	4.7	5.1	1,571.7	757.4	48.2	814.3	51.8
All States	2,883	4.2	4.6	1,503.9	633.7	42.1	870.2	57.9

A part of the variation in the values and the distribution of values of the different groups of goods furnished may be due to different climatic conditions, different types of farming and different prices, especially of foods and fuel. Severe winters call for more fuel in Massachusetts than in Alabama. The amount of wood available from the farm varies in the different states. Similarly, housing demands vary with the severity of the climate and with the prevailing housing standards of the farming communities. The type of farming influences the value of foods, and consequently the proportion that the value of these foods bears to the total value of all goods furnished. Finally, higher prices enhance the value of food or fuel in certain states.

Size of family has some significance in this connection. This

factor, as well as food-using and fuel-using habits of farm families, calls for further analysis. Amounts of food and fuel wasted, as well as the adequacy of the amounts used, need to be determined. Out of such analyses may come definite plans for securing an increased proportion of food and fuel from the farm.

FAMILY LIVING PURCHASED

The value of family goods furnished by the farm constitutes from one-third to one-half of the total value of the family living, the average being 42.1 per cent for all families here reported. Thus, approximately 58.0 per cent of the farm family living is provided by direct purchase. The proportion that the value of all goods purchased bears to the total value of all goods used varies from 51.8 per cent in Alabama to 64.2 per cent in Connecticut. The average value of all goods purchased, $870 for all families (Table 1), ranges from $650 for Schoharie county, New York, to $1,244 for selected localities of Massachusetts.

For all families the average value of foods purchased amounts to 25.7 per cent of all goods purchased; clothing 25.3 per cent; furniture, 4.7 per cent; operation goods, 18.1 per cent; health maintenance goods, 6.8 per cent; advancement goods and services, 10.9 per cent; personal goods, 4.1 per cent; insurance premiums, 4.1 per cent, and unclassified goods, 0.3 per cent.

Some of the more noteworthy points brought out in studying clothing are: that the costs for wives and daughters are higher than for husbands and sons, with the exception of daughters and sons in the age groups of 6-11 and 1-5 years, and that the cost of clothing increases rapidly for both sons and daughters from the age of 6-11 to the age of about 24, after which it declines noticeably.

The value of furnishings and furniture purchased, averaging $41, ranges from $27 in Connecticut to $64 in Missouri.

The value of operation goods and services purchased, which averages $158, ranges from $78 in New York to $206 in Kentucky. Included under operation goods purchased by all fami-

lies (Table 5) are fuel, $41.50, hired help in the household, $11; household supplies, $10.20; laundry done outside the home, $4.30; use of the automobile (including depreciation) for household purposes, $74.10; feed and maintenance cost of horse and buggy for household use, $5; carfare and bus fare, $1.10; telephone charge for household use, $5.80; postage, express and freight, $2.10; insurance on furnishings, $1.10, and ice for household use, $1.60.

The cost for the maintenance of health which averages $59, varies from $37 in New York to $85 in Iowa.

The value of advancement goods, which averages $94, ranges from $58 in New York to $170 in Massachusetts. Advancement goods include formal education averaging $30.90 per family; reading matter, $11.00; organization dues, $3.50; church and Sunday school, including missions, $25.60; Red Cross and other welfare, $.80; and recreation, including special trips, $22.60.

The value of personal goods averaging $36, varies from $12 in New York to $65 in Missouri. Under personal goods are gifts to members of the family and to others, $13.30; jewelry, $1.20; barber's fees and toilet articles, $8.40; candy, gum, sodas, etc., $3.90, and tobacco, pipes, etc., $9.20.

The premiums paid on life and health insurance policies, averaging $35.30, range from $17 in New York to $58 in Iowa.

The value of goods not readily classified, which averages $2.50, ranges from $.10 in Missouri to $6.50 in Kentucky.

With goods and services purchased as well as goods furnished, variations may be due in part to climatic conditions and to geographic locations. The amounts of food and fuel purchased depend upon the amounts available from the farms. Local prices have some effect, size of family, habits of living, available income, and sources of goods and services call for further analyses with regard to the amounts, varieties and values of the principal kinds of goods purchased in relation to the amounts, varieties and values of the goods available from the farm.

TOTAL VALUE OF FAMILY LIVING

The total value of family living is made up of the values of goods furnished and purchased. This value ranges from $1,078 in Schoharie county, New York, to $1,948 in selected localities of Massachusetts, with an average value of $1,504 for all families of all states. The average values of family living for the other states studied are $1,488, $1,492, $1,493, $1,541, $1,572, $1,669, $1,897 (for Kentucky, Kansas, Connecticut, Ohio, Alabama, Iowa and Missouri in the order named). The causes of variation in the average value of family living have been named in connection with goods furnished by the farm and purchased.

HOW THE TOTAL VALUE OF FAMILY LIVING IS DISTRIBUTED

A distribution of the total value of family living among the principal groups of items is shown in Table 5. The proportion that the value of food bears to the value of all goods used, 41.2 per cent, ranges from 37.0 per cent in Ohio to 48.8 per cent in Alabama. The proportion that clothing costs bear to the total value of all goods, 14.7 per cent, varies from 12.6 in Massachusetts to 16.1 in Alabama. The proportion that the rental value of the house bears to the value of all goods, 12.4 per cent, ranges from 7.5 per cent in Alabama to 16.6 per cent in Ohio. The percentage of the total value of all goods devoted to furniture and furnishings, averaging 2.7, varies from 1.8 per cent in Connecticut to 3.4 per cent in New York. The percentage expended on operation goods averaging 13.9, varies from 10.7 per cent in Alabama to 17.4 per cent in New York. The percentage used for the maintenance of health, averaging 3.9, varies from 2.8 per cent in Alabama to 5.1 per cent in Iowa. The percentage devoted to advancement goods, averaging 6.3, varies from 4.9 per cent in Ohio to 8.7 per cent in Massachusetts. The amount used for personal goods, averaging 2.4 per cent, ranges from 1.1 per cent in New York to 3.4 per cent in Missouri and the portion used for insurance premiums, 2.3 per cent, varies from 1.6 per cent in New York to 3.5 per cent in Iowa.

TABLE II

The average value per family for the principal groups of goods furnished by the farm and purchased and the distribution of the average value among the principal groups of goods for the year ending December 31, 1923. Two thousand, eight hundred and eighty-three farm families of selected localities of the United States. Owners, 2,014; tenants, 808; and hired men, 61.

	Furnished by farm	Purchased	Total	Proportion of total
Total	$ 633.7	$ 870.2	$ 1,503.9	Percent
Food, including groceries	395.3	223.9	619.2	41.2
Clothing	—	220.3	220.3	14.7
Rent (10% value of house)	187.0	—	187.0	12.4
Furnishings and equipment	—	40.9	40.9	2.7
Operation expenses	—	—	209.2	13.9
a. Fuel	51.4	41.5	—	—
b. Hired help in household	—	11.0	—	—
c. Household supplies	—	10.2	—	—
d. Laundry outside	—	4.3	—	—
e. Automobile, inc. deprec.	—	74.1	—	—
f. Horse and buggy	—	5.0	—	—
g. Carfare	—	1.1	—	—
h. Telephone	—	5.8	—	—
i. Postage, exp. & freight	—	2.1	—	—
j. Insur. on fur. & equip.	—	1.1	—	—
k. Ice	—	1.6	—	—
l. Water	—	.0	—	—
Maintenance of health	—	59.1	59.1	3.9
Advancement	—	—	94.4	6.3
a. Formal education	—	30.9	—	—
b. Reading matter	—	11.0	—	—
c. Organization dues	—	3.5	—	—
d. Church, S.S. and Missions	—	25.6	—	—
e. Red Cross & other welfare	—	.8	—	—
f. Recreation	—	22.6	—	—
Personal	—	—	36.0	2.4
a. Gifts	—	13.3	—	—
b. Jewelry	—	1.2	—	—
c. Toilet articles, etc.	—	8.4	—	—
d. Candy, gum, sodas	—	3.9	—	—
e. Tobacco, pipes, etc.	—	9.2	—	—
Insurance (life and health)	—	35.3	35.3	2.3
Unclassified	—	2.5	2.5	.2

Comparison of the Distribution of Goods Used by Farm Families and Industrial Families.—The proportions that the values of the principal groups of goods bear to the total value of all goods used may be compared with similar proportions for approximately 12,000 industrial families studied by the United States Department of Labor about 1918.[1] In the industrial families, 38.2 per cent of the $1,434 worth of goods used, went for food, in

[1] "Cost of Living in the United States," *Monthly Labor Review*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, August, 1919, p. 119.

comparison with 41.2 per cent of the total value of all goods for farm families. Similarly the proportion of the total going for fuel and light, 5.3 per cent, is lower than that for the farm families, 6.2 per cent. On the other hand the proportions for clothing, rent, and furnishings are higher for the industrial families, the proportions being 16.6 per cent, 13.4 per cent and 5.1 per cent, as compared with 14.7 per cent, 12.4 per cent and 2.7 per cent for the farm families. The proportion for all other purposes is higher for the farm families, 22.8 per cent in comparison with 21.3 per cent. The industrial families are larger, 4.9 persons per household, in comparison with 4.6 persons per household for the farm families.

The higher percentages of the total value of all living for food for the farm families may mean that the farm families wasted more food and probably consumed more food since a greater abundance of food from the farm usually means less careful and more liberal use of those foods. The same assumption applies to fuel.

The lower percentage of the total for clothing among farm families is due in part to the higher percentages for food and fuel. In addition, farm families by nature of their occupation, their more limited social contacts or their greater inaccessibility to clothing stores may actually consume less clothing. The lower percentage for rent by the farm families is due to the higher percentages for food and fuel and to the lower valuations of farm houses owing to location and to the tendency of the farmer to undervalue the use of his house for actual living purposes. Similarly, the percentage for furnishings may be low because food and fuel are high and because a lesser amount is purchased by farm families. It is probable that the more frequent moving or shifting of industrial families means wear, breakage and disposal of furnishings to the extent that replacement costs are enhanced as compared with those for farm families.

Variation in the Distribution of Values of the Principal Groups of Goods with Increase in the Total Value of all Goods.—The figures presented above deal with the distribution for the average level of living only. It is of interest to note how the farm

families vary their distribution of expenditures as the size of their total expenditures changes.

The results previously referred to of a general study of the standard of living among approximately 12,000 working men's families of 92 localities throughout the United States,[2] show that as the total expenditure for family living increases a larger proportion goes for purposes other than food, rent, fuel and light. On the other hand the proportion of the total expenditure going for the so-called necessities falls quite noticeably. Results of a similar study of the cost of living among 11,000 working men's families of the principal industrial centers of 33 states, about 1902,[3] show the same trend except that the proportion for rent remains almost constant. In the earlier study made by Engel among working men's families of Belgium and reviewed by Chapin the proportion spent for clothing [4] remained about the same, as did the proportions for rent and fuel and light.

From an analysis of the of the 2,883 farm family records it is noted that as the total value of all goods used increases:

(*a*) The percentage going for food decreases, although the percentage of the total value of food furnished by the farm remains constant.

(*b*) The percentage for clothing increases markedly although although somewhat irregularly. This corresponds to the 20th century industrial families but differs widely from the 19th century European families.

(*c*) The percentage for rent remains constant or increases very slightly. This is similar to the European families and to United States industrial families studied about 1902. It is different from the United States industrial families, studied about 1918, for which rent showed a considerable decrease.

(d) The percentage for all other goods [than rent, food and clothing] increases. This is in accordance with all other families studied. For the more important groups of these goods:

[2] "Cost of Living in the United States," *Monthly Labor Review*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, August, 1919, p. 119.

[3] "Cost of Living and Retail Prices of Food," *18th Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor*, 1903.

[4] Chapin, Robert C., *The Standard of Living Among Working Men's Families in New York City*, 1909.

(1) The percentage for operation goods, including fuel and lighting, remains about the same or decreases slightly.

(2) The percentage for goods for personal uses remains about the same.

(3) The percentage for furnishings, maintenance of health and life, and health insurance increase.

(4) The percentage for advancement goods and services increases markedly and quite regularly.

(*e*) The percentage of goods furnished by the farm decreases markedly and fairly regularly.

The foregoing data are presented primarily as a means of stressing the basic factors or elements of family living and the costs, along with the distribution of these costs, at which the basic elements are provided. They are not considered as an adequate basis for comparing farm family living with the living of other groups with regard to comfort and attractiveness of the house and grounds, opportunities for improvement and participation in community activities. The results here given are suggestive of further analyses in an attempt to get at the facts in regard to values and uses of the many elements of the farm family's living. Eventually, from these facts a plan may be worked out whereby farm families may enjoy a standard of living commensurate with that of families of other trades and professions. This may mean a plea for greater returns from farming. It will surely mean a better understanding by various members of the farm family of the comparative values of the economic goods used and knowledge of when, how much and for what purposes to spend. It should mean an inclination to profit by mistakes already made in spending and a decision to save something, if only a little, systematically. It must mean the giving of as much attention to the spending of the dollar already earned, in order that this dollar may provide the utmost satisfaction, as is now given to the mere making of another dollar without consideration of the manner of its spending.

The Distribution of the Value of Goods Used as an Index of Standard of Living.—The distribution of the value of all goods used among the principal groups of goods offers a fairly satis-

factory method of determining how well families actually live. The most worth-while values in life grow out of the use of non-material goods, known as cultural, that is, educational, recreational, and so on, provided of course, that the needs for food, clothing, shelter, and other material goods have been met.

The proportion which the value of each of the several groups of goods bears to the total value of all goods is one of the best available measures of the standard of living. The results of a general study of the cost of living among approximately 12,000 working men's families of 92 localities throughout the United States about 1918,[5] show that as the total value of all goods used increases, a larger proportion of this total value is for purposes other than food, rent, fuel and light. Conversely, as the total value rises the proportion going for the so-called necessities falls quite noticeably. Results of an earlier study of the cost of living among 11,000 working men's families of the principal industrial centers of 33 states, about 1902,[6] show the same trend, except that the proportion for rent remains almost constant as the total value of all goods rises.

Since there is a tendency for the proportion which the values of the non-material goods bear to the total value of all goods used to rise as the total value increases, the distribution of values among the various groups is considered quite as indicative, if not more so, of the standard of living, as is the total value of all goods used. The distribution of goods which is less affected than the total value of goods by varying prices, is preferable to the total value of goods as a means of comparing the standards of living among families of different periods, different localities and different trades or occupations.

[5] "Cost of Living in the United States," *Monthly Labor Review*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, August, 1919, p. 119.

[6] "Cost of Living and Retail Prices of Food," *Eighteenth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor*, 1903.

III

THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL ART

ANNA MANSFIELD CLARK
National Board of the Y. W. C. A.

"Not only around our infancy
Doth heaven with all its splendors lie:
Daily, with souls that cringe and plot,
We Sinais climb and know it not."
James Russell Lowell

Rural art movements in the United States have begun to find expression. Here and there a great leader has opened the door of beauty and appreciation, and hundreds of people have discovered within themselves the emotional experiences of color and line, music and rhythm which are the great gifts of God to those who live in the open spaces.

That these experiences of beauty have not been released largely in creative art—such as music, drama, poetry, painting, craft work, architecture and landscape gardening—is one of the tragedies of American rural civilization. The pioneer was too busy subduing the wilderness and the farm people of to-day struggle under such a burden of manual labor that their experience in connection with the objects of nature is one of fatigue rather than appreciation. Our educational system has neglected the stimulation of the appreciations and the skills of art, and the channeling of the emotions, and since we have not been trained to express ourselves in creative beauty our emotions run riot in strange ways.

Gutzon Borglum has said: "The task of the artist is to reach down into the lives of people and lift up their souls where they can see them." The soul of rural America is be-

ginning to lift itself slowly but surely above material struggle into a world where imagination and an appreciation of beauty transform and add a glory to life.

DRAMA

Perhaps the most notable art movement in rural America during the last twenty years has been the development of a folk drama. "It was in 1906 that Frederick H. Koch made a 'barnstorming tour' of the treeless levels of North Dakota from the University at Grand Forks. The University players played *The Rivals* and followed that with other old favorites clearing the ground for a people's drama. The dramatic interest that followed developed two types—the pageant, a distinctly communal form, enlisting all the people, and the folk play an intimate portrayal of the life and character of the people of the plains." [1]

Dr. Koch was called to the Chair of Dramatic Literature at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C., in 1918, but North Dakota has continued to attract the attention of those interested in rural drama. Alfred G. Arvold has for 16 years been building the Little Country Theater so that it is now the "Heart of that Prairie State." Every resource is there from a most notable reference library to costumes, plays, programs and suggestions for all types of entertainment in all types of places. Not only have the best plays of all ages been given by country people in North Dakota but they themselves have written and produced their own drama with artistic finish and a genuineness of expression that signifies that it is not play-acting but life itself that they are portraying. Drama in North Dakota is truly "not a luxury for the classes but an instrument for the enlightenment, self-expression and enjoyment of the masses." [2]

When Dr. Koch transferred his interests to North Carolina he organized the Carolina Playmakers, who are becoming a

[1] *Carolina Folk Plays,* First Series and Second Series.
[2] Alfred G. Arvold, *The Little Country Theatre.*

great influence in the field of American art, for they are building a drama on the folklore, legends and traditions and lives of North Carolina people. Although they are plays of a single state they have a wider significance. "We know that if we speak for the human nature in our own neighborhood we shall be expressing for all. The locality if it be truly interpreted is the only universal. It has been so in all lasting literature, and in every locality all over America, as in North Carolina, there is the need and the striving for a fresh expression of our common folk life." [3] In these folk plays are portrayed the legends of the coast country, its buried treasure, the quaint life of its fisher folk and the pirates of the coast. In them also is the isolation of the mountains, the comedy, tragedy, and superstition of the past and present. The historical incidents of the state, both legendary and authentic, are rich in dramatic values. These plays are written in the university course in dramatic composition and produced by the playmakers on a home-made stage. They are then played in the locality where the story originated. "It is an interesting experience to participate with the audience in such a performance. If the log cabin used in a play of fisher people contains logs larger than the trees in the section, if the rocks in the fire place could not have existed in that locality, if there is a flaw in the dialect, the author and producer will be sure to hear about it." [4] The influence of the Carolina Playmakers has now become state wide and with helpful suggestions from the university, creative dramatic art is being developed throughout the state by many groups of people.

The Cornell dramatic club was organized in 1907 to present contemporary European drama seldom seen on the American stage. In 1919 some European and American plays were given at the State Fair and met with such overwhelming success that interest in rural drama has been greatly stimulated in New York state, and the Little Country Theater has become an important feature of the county fairs. There were thirteen

[3] *The Carolina Folk Plays.*
[4] *Ibid.*

little country theaters at various fairs last year and plans were made for five more this year. The usual procedure is to erect a tent with a stage at one end, simple scenery is made or curtains are used as a background, and groups from various parts of the county put on plays that have been tried out in their own communities. In most cases the home bureau takes the responsibility for the project in coöperation with the fair association but the plays are presented by any organization in the county that wishes to do so. These plays are judged on the quality of production and first, second and third prizes are awarded, but cash prizes are not usually given. Instead each group producing a play is allowed a small sum to cover the cost of production.[5]

The Department of Rural Sociology of Cornell in coöperation with the New York Grange, the Federation of County Farm Bureau Associations, the State Home Bureau Federation and the Grange, League and Farm-Bureau Federation is conducting a contest with prizes for the best plays presenting sympathetically some phase of rural life. These plays will be published by the university which now has various plays and pageants and helpful bulletins on the little country theater and play production.

The School of Agriculture of the University of Minnesota, University Farm, St. Paul, Minn., lays great stress on dramatics, giving its students systematic training in the production of plays. One form of summer project for which a student receives scholastic credit is the direction of a play in his home community. Minnesota is standing for the best in rural drama and pageantry and under Miss Katherine Kester's able leadership is doing much for dramatic production.[6]

The State College of Agriculture at Athens, Georgia, through artistically produced plays and pageants is emphasizing better farm life and pride in the history and agricultural development of Georgia. Thousands of people flock to see the pageants

[5] A. M. Drummond, *The Country Theatre,* Cornell Reading Course, Lesson 153.
[6] "Play and the Farmer," *Drama,* May-November, 1924.

which are given in the beautiful open air amphitheater of the college during the summer session, at the farmers' conference and on other special occasions. This movement is under the leadership of Miss Laura E. Blackshear. The pageants and plays will be published in bulletin form.

The University of New Hampshire, Durham, N. H., is beginning a drama movement with the express purpose of substituting for the old idea of farm people as inferior folk the modern idea of farm people and farm homes. Henry Bailey Stevens' two plays *City Rubes* and *All Alone in the Country* have been used widely both in New Hampshire and other states. These are the forerunners of artistic work as yet unpublished which depicts the struggle of New Hampshire folk with the forces of nature.

RELIGIOUS DRAMA

Religious drama has received great impetus from the appointment in some denominations of persons in charge of drama and pageantry. The Federal Council of Churches working with these experts has produced for the last two years two volumes of religious drama which have been selected with great care from hundreds of manuscripts. "These plays have been selected with regard to religious message, dramatic technique, literary quality and educational merit. With these standards in mind the types of plays selected have been: First, biblical dramas and episodes; second, fellowship plays and pageants, centering around Christian community building both at home and abroad, and third, extra-biblical plays of the individual, spiritual life." [7] The value of this emphasis for the country community both through the denominations and this centralizing effort to make religious drama artistic and therefore more educational cannot be overestimated. In 1924 and 1925 a School of Religious Drama was held at Auburn, N. Y., and courses on drama and pageantry have also been given at the institutes of the Epworth League and Sunday school conferences.

[7] *Religious Dramas, 1924.*

ART EXTENSION IN ILLINOIS [9]

The purpose of the Art Extension Committee is "to assist in making art a more potent elevating force in the lives of the people of the state of Illinois. It aims to help the people to discover beauty in nature and to enjoy it, to recognize beauty in art and to appreciate it, and to stimulate the production of beautiful things."

In the development of this comprehensive purpose the Art Extension Committee has gradually come into existence. The communities of the state desiring to coöperate in such a movement are represented on this committee. The usual procedure is the formation of a local committee of from three or four to a dozen or fifteen men and women representing the important institutions and organizations. The chairman of this local committee represents that community on the state-wide Art Extension Committee. Such a local committee does not take the place of or in any way displace the organizations represented. It is, instead, a kind of a clearing house between these associations, providing a common ground for the promotion of things most essential in the common life. One of the most interesting and helpful projects of this Art Extension Committee has been an annual tour of some part of Illinois. The trips have been so arranged that the most beautiful parts of the state may in time become more familiar to the people.

THE LANDSCAPE BACKGROUND FOR AMERICAN RURAL LIFE [10]

One of the most important conditions and characteristics of rural life everywhere is its landscape background. The importance of this landscape is only beginning to be recognized and here and there faint efforts are being made to conserve, improve, and utilize it. Properly utilized it will add enormously to the cultural and spiritual resources of the people who live in the country, and indeed also to city dwellers who only visit

[9] R. E. Hieronymus, "Art Extension in Illinois," *Rural America*, May, 1925.

[10] Contributed by Professor Frank A. Waugh, Amherst, Mass.

the country. It is of the utmost importance, therefore, to consider the human value of this background, learn how men and women come in contact with it and what the results of that contact are as shown in their lives. There is not room in this article to touch upon all these fundamental questions, but assuming their importance, we may proceed to some discussion of what is going on in the rural world which may lead in this direction.

A considerable number of colleges and universities are now teaching landscape architecture, which has been thus far the primary basis for country planning. Though other forces are involved it would appear that landscape architecture will long have preëminence in this particular field.

The American Society of Landscape Architects is an active organization of professional men engaged in landscape architecture. These men are interested in the development of public parks, recreation grounds, in the conservation of native landscape, and in city and country planning. Their influence may always be counted upon, therefore, in the right direction.[11]

Recently there has been organized a large [12] national committee dealing primarily with outdoor recreation. This committee is making a special effort toward the conservation and utilization of resources in national forests, national parks, state forests, state parks, etc.

The women's clubs are now doing a great deal for the cultural advancement of our population. Most of these clubs have committees or sections dealing with conservation, public recreation or similar matters. The women's clubs, therefore, offer admirable centers from which this work can be carried on.

The granges offer similar opportunities. They are closely in touch with the rural population, their outlook is definitely cultural, and they are able to do much in the defense of all rural resources and also in the development of a wider appreciation of these resources.

[11] Mr. Bremer W. Pond is secretary of the American Society of Landscape Architects. 18 Tremont Street, Boston, Mass.

[12] Mr. Arthur Ringland is secretary of the National Conference on Outdoor Recreation. Washington, D. C.

The public schools have given some study to conservation as a national policy. At the proper time and under suitable leadership they can give more attention to this subject, and the work of the schools can be extended to include especially a wider appreciation of the landscape background.

There is a vast unorganized enthusiasm for the out-of-doors and for what it means in our civilization. These unorganized forces can still be brought together wherever proper nuclei are found, and as soon as they have suitable direction may be expected to give great assistance.

In several different states definite extension work has been undertaken by the agricultural colleges in the field of country planning. For the most part these aim at the improvement of country school grounds, farmyards and country roads. In the state of Iowa, for example, a very active commission has been developing a fine series of state parks. The state park movement is also active and successful in a number of other states, especially Connecticut, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania and New York.

These are merely illustrations of the kind of activity which may lead toward a better understanding and wider use of the landscape background. These activities need to be widely multiplied, better organized and better directed; and it is further desirable that new leadership should find new ways of attacking this very great problem.

MUSIC

During the summer of 1924, $557,838 was paid by seven hundred "fairs" for music programs. The amount ranged from fifty dollars paid to a local band to $40,000, which was the cost to one fair association of engaging celebrated bands and noted singers and providing contests and prizes. The New York and California state fairs have held band contests and offered large cash prizes. California reports that the largest entry list is always with amateur classes which consist of boys' bands. The Eastern States Exposition at Springfield, Massachusetts, has for

three seasons held a junior music festival and contest which has encouraged greater musical achievement, and because of this encouragement many junior music organizations have received wider community support.[13]

The value of the music memory contest lies more in the intensive work done by the children in familiarizing themselves with good music and preparing themselves for the competition than in the competition itself. There is no reason why rural districts should not keep pace with the very rapid spread of this movement in urban centers.[14] Memory contests have been promoted recently in 17 counties, and state-wide movements including the rural areas have been promoted in six states.

The educational work of the Victor Talking Machine Company under the direction of Mrs. Frances E. Clark at Camden, New Jersey, is a real force in developing musical appreciation. The Company has musical directors who illustrate their talks with records and are available without remuneration for large rural gatherings. Help may also be obtained from Mrs. Clark on musical subjects. Her department has made a special feature of music for rural schools.

The Eisteddfod Movement in Southern California is an attempt to adapt a splendid Welsh institution to America. The movement began in Ventura County through the community service organization in 1924 and consisted of a week of music, drama and art competitions, with the coöperation of every community in the county. This met with such success that an Eisteddfod comprising the entire southern California district has been organized. The contests embrace all departments of music including elementary and high school music groups, church choirs and choruses, community orchestras, community drama, and in some districts contests in the various branches of art.

At the mid-winter crop show held at the Northwest School of Agriculture, Crookston, Minnesota, it has been the custom

[13] *Music at the Fairs*, National Bureau for the Advancement of Music, 45 West 45th Street, New York.

[14] *Organization of County and State Music Memory Contests*, National Bureau for the Advancement of Music, 45 West 45th Street, New York.

to bring in groups of singers from different communities. At the Michigan State College of Agriculture, East Lansing, Michigan, each year when the farmers' day program is given a town and country church choir singing contest is held. The contest is held in the forenoon of farmers' day and in the afternoon at the general program the winning choirs sing.

For years Mrs. Rose Morgan has been carrying on a veritable crusade for songs in homes. She speaks for songs that live and have an art value and a heart value, that carry tradition and beauty and have "age-long standards of loyalty, purity and truth. . . . If we are to become a music-loving nation," Mrs. Morgan says, "we must have American music. It must smack of our soil. It must embody the character and express the tendency and trend of American life. It must bear the marks of our weal and woe. It must show in strongly marked rhythms the effect of our developed and developing national energy. It must be the faithful interpreter of the true America." [15]

National Music Week is promoted through a large national committee on which rural interests are represented by members from the American Country Life Association, the American Farm Bureau Federation and the national Grange. State Farm Bureau Federations, superintendents of instruction, extension directors and Granges are making these weeks a success. It is a drive by the friends of music for a wider appreciation and its strength comes from the universal yet sometimes unconscious human need for music. Participation ranges all the way from an elaborate concert to the simple home gathering around the radio or phonograph. In the helpful suggestions sent out by the National Music Week Committee, New York, are resources for any and all communities.

The National Bureau for the Advancement of Music is under the direction of Mr. C. M. Tremaine, 45 West 45th Street, New York City. It is a clearing house for the best in music. Here any person who has the desire to advance music in home, church, school or community may obtain information. The

[15] Rose Morgan, *Songs That Live,* Cornell Reading Courses No. 10, Ithaca, New York.

specific things on which the Bureau has placed its suggestive emphasis and stimulating resource are the music memory contests, music weeks, Christmas Eve caroling, and the publication of bulletins showing the advancement of special musical movements throughout the nation.

The state universities of the West and Middle West, particularly, are doing considerable work in developing musical activities and musical interest in the smaller communities, and this work is done frequently through their extension departments. Thus, for instance, the University of Wisconsin at Madison has prepared a well organized course in music appreciation to be given over the radio. The Extension Department of the University of California arranges courses of concerts and lectures which may be secured at low rates by the local communities. The Universities of North Dakota, South Dakota and Minnesota, the State Teachers College at Emporia, Kansas, the Agricultural College of Michigan, and many others, organize contests in musical performance, including bands, orchestras, glee clubs, etc.

The Playground and Recreation Association of America has published a number of bulletins for the aid of those interested in developing music in the rural communities. Among these are bulletins relating to the community orchestra, American folk songs (like the Stephen Foster melodies), Christmas caroling, Easter caroling, and also the comprehensive Community Music Handbook. Most of the bulletins are sold for 10 cents per copy.

IV

RURAL EDUCATION

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Rural education is concerned with 12,000,000 children in the United States, of whom 9,000,000 are in farm homes and 3,000,000 are living in villages and hamlets. (These are the latest estimates of the Federal Bureau of Education.) In addition the adult population, which is caring for these rural children, is being educated. Therefore the problem under discussion has to do with a total of approximately 50,000,000 people. Tendencies in present efforts at the solution of this vast and complex problem may be seen to advantage within the limits set for this article by dividing the whole field into five major parts: (1) the public schools, (2) institutions of higher learning, (3) governmental agencies, (4) voluntary organizations, (5) research and publicity.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Public school service in the United States is based upon the fundamental American principle of equality of opportunity for all citizens—child and adult, rich and poor, accessible and isolated—at the earliest date possible under the conditioning circumstances. In many localities and in some whole states it is obvious that rural education is still relatively weak. The serious consideration here is found in the undeveloped potentialities of thousands of children and young people which results in shrinking the material, intellectual, and spiritual resources

of the nation in an unmeasured but doubtless a very great degree.

The present tendency here is toward definiteness of information and specific objectives. Oratory and general promotion still have services to render but statesmanship and professional achievement are in the saddle in North Carolina, California, Maryland and some other states. These pace-making states are bringing the dawn of a new day which shall give to rural children a square deal in education.

In school support two tendencies are clearly apparent, one of which looks to increasing school revenues from new and old state resources; and the other seeks better methods in the distribution of state funds. The objectives here are to equalize taxation and school opportunity, without interfering with the maximum of local effort and initiative which is or can be made to become operative. Need is more and more coming to be the common divisor in use of public money for education.

New methods of distribution are gaining legal footing through progressive legislation and court decisions. The following are new features: state assumption of part or all the costs of professional supervision and attendance enforcement in counties; special aid to high schools; definition of minimum limits by which to designate poor districts eligible for additional state aid; and appropriation of an equalization fund designed to aid in paying teachers' salaries in districts which, having levied the constitutional limit of local school tax, cannot maintain school for the minimum school year. The constitutionality of an important appropriation act was upheld by the Supreme Court of Oklahoma on September 9, 1924.

Higher academic and professional standards are beginning to guard the threshold of teaching against the competition of the unfit. The large annual influx of immature and unprepared beginners has been and still is the greatest obstacle to the derivation of a real profession of teaching. Two pronounced tendencies are matters of record here: (1) minimum qualifications for teachers' certificates have been considerably increased; and (2) facilities for training rural teachers in state and local

normal schools have multiplied, and graduation from high school has become a minimum requirement for admission to teacher-training courses in most of the states.

A few of the most advanced states now require two years' work of college grade from all beginning teachers, and other states have been able to establish a beginning requirement of one year of specified preparatory work of college grade. Still other states have fixed the standard for beginning teachers at high school training, including some professional subjects; and in a few states teachers who have not furnished secondary school work are still being certificated. There is a general tendency toward certification by way of institutional graduation rather than by local and state examinations.

One hundred twenty-two state normal schools and teachers' colleges now offer 257 courses in rural education. Considering professional dignity, preparation, and salaries, the faculty members giving these courses are approaching equality with those in the traditional departments of these schools. The controlling ideas here are: (1) all the child citizens of the state are equally entitled to become the educational beneficiaries of the state; and (2) the collection of a state-wide tax for the benefit of all and allowing it to be absorbed in use to the very greatly disproportionate advantage of children in towns and cities, as illustrated in the history of state normal schools, is a demonstration of administrative weakness not to be permanently endured.

Twenty-three states provide teacher-training of secondary grade or in connection with secondary schools. In five states high school graduation is required for entrance to the course. Four states, however, are definitely discontinuing this work; several others have expressed a desire to do so at the earliest possible date. This training has been the greatest single agency for raising the standards of teacher preparation for rural schools, and it continues to serve with economy in states where a minimum of one year of training is yet to be achieved. A direct result of the growing public appreciation of the value and necessity of teacher-preparation may soon appear in the

requirement of an equal minimum preparation for all beginning teachers, and when this minimum requirement exceeds the service capacity of local training schools, these schools will have completed their work.

In-service preparation of teachers is provided by dating required standards ahead to safeguard and retain in the work teachers who are inadequately prepared. A liberal time limit allows them to attend summer sessions for continued training. Many institutions provide correspondence and class extension courses to meet the necessities of teachers in service. The establishment and enforcement of better standards call for careful administrative leadership, and in all cases where judiciously directed this work has resulted in a gradual increase in salaries voluntarily paid by boards of education.

The movement to employ expert supervisors gives promise of the greatest increase in efficiency of teachers already in service. Maryland, Alabama, California and several other states afford good examples of this prophetic tendency. In 1924 the twenty-three counties in Maryland employed thirty-nine supervisors and helping teachers, which lowered the number of teachers per supervisor to an average of fifty and approached somewhat the goal of forty, the standard fixed in the law. This work is compulsory and is financed by the state.

In Alabama provision is made for supervision on a voluntary basis financed by the counties themselves. Approximately half the counties employ instructional supervisors. Apparently further progress in Alabama awaits the securing of more adequate financial resources. California provides state appropriation for the payment of rural supervisors in a manner similar to that in vogue for the distribution of state money for teachers' salaries. In this state fifty-five of the fifty-eight counties now employ rural supervisors. It is estimated by the Federal Bureau of Education that there are now about 1,200 rural supervisors in the United States.

The county unit form of organization in rural education appears to be the best for instituting modern professional service in the rural schools. It is now established with varying

degrees of centralization in twenty-two states. This is the result to date of a movement to provide a unit of control large enough to afford increasing powers and duties to a county board of education and a county superintendent, in order that a complete educational organization for rural elementary and secondary schools, with professional management, supervision and teaching staff, may be established.

Experience indicates that consolidation of the small rural schools is not in and of itself a panacea for the ills of rural education. The truth is best stated thus: The virtues of consolidation are potential. It is a means to an end. The large item of expense for transportation of pupils must be justified by greatly improved educational service. This can be done only gradually, as the movement matures under the most intelligent guidance by state and county superintendents and boards of education. In 1924, the latest year for which an estimate is available, there were 14,000 consolidated schools in the United States, employing about 150,000 teachers, and enrolling approximately 2,750,000 children. The consolidation movement has been retarded in the years just passed by the financial situation in the country generally, by cautions learned from experience, and by the time required to overcome certain feelings which were aroused by unwise propaganda. The tendency is to study the attitude of the people, the best type of district for consolidation (partly a local question), the safe-guarding of the unconsolidated districts remaining, and means of securing local, county, and state funds adequately to finance an efficient consolidated school.

There is a greatly increased interest in rural secondary schools, resulting partly from the movement for consolidation and largely from the rapid advance of the necessity for such education to meet the complexity of present-day life and work. An excellent statement of commonly accepted objectives of rural high schools is made by Dr. Emery N. Ferris in Bulletin No. 10, 1925, Federal Bureau of Education, p. 71, as follows: 1. Promotion of normal physical development. 2. Guidance toward a worthy life work and selection of high-school work

in harmony with choice made. 3. Vocational training for those not going beyond the high school. 4. The development in each pupil of a sense of responsibility as a member of society and of a democracy. 5. Training in intelligent participation in promoting the welfare of society (service). 6. Training in desirable forms of avocational and recreational pursuits. 7. The development of some permanent interests, appreciations, habits, and desires for continued growth. 8. The development of a rational attitude toward life's problems. 9. Training, in so far as the age of secondary pupils makes desirable, to meet intelligently the responsibilities of home life and parenthood. 10. Training in relation to all the work of the school in moral-ethical habits, attitudes, and ideals. 11. Preparation of those pupils who desire to enter higher institutions of learning.

HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

The provision made for the specific preparation of rural teachers in 120 state normal schools and teachers' colleges has already been mentioned. Departments of education in many state universities are offering courses in rural education and are directing research work in this field. This is an opportunity for definite service by these great institutions in which, in many cases, farmers have made a vast investment of their hard earned money. Returns to the farm communities have come in the education of the sons and daughters sent to the universities, in improved professional services, in stimulation of local schools, and in the development of a more able local leadership. There is a tendency at present in many universities to make their services to the rural population more specific and more penetrating.

Present tendencies in state colleges of agriculture and applied science, which represent the greatest coöperative national and state educational effort, are indicative of an even greater future for these institutions. In spite of the difficulty rising from the sectional character of agriculture and the consequent diversity of policy, certain trends lend themselves to fairly definite state-

ment. There is a wide-spread liberalizing of the courses of study, with the conscious purpose that graduates of these colleges shall have opportunity to acquire both general culture and agricultural training. Researches in economic and social fields are being localized for specific information and summarized in order to discover the major facts governing the direction and control of social progress.

Three other tendencies are being defined. First, the tendency to make or help make definite programs of agricultural development. The subject of the last meeting of the Land Grant College Association was "The Relation of the Colleges to a National Policy in the Fields of Agriculture, Industries, and Home Making." The tendency is not only toward national, but also toward state, county, and even community programs. Related to this is the increasing interest on the part of administrators in the problems of course of study and particularly of methods of teaching, and methods of training college teachers.

Secondly, there is evidence of increasing discussion and action in agricultural education circles about the rural community. More and more, programs and policies are being worked out in terms of the rural community. In this connection much thought and discussion are being given to the relations between the town and the country, with the purpose of merging town and country interests on a community basis.

Thirdly, a tendency not yet very apparent but evidently getting under way is that of broadening the conception of extension work. Agriculture and home economics are already covered, and industrial extension is also developing quite rapidly. In the near future the land grant colleges are likely to exemplify a broad view of all aspects of the problem of systematic education after school days are over.

An indirect form of extension by the state colleges is wielding a wonderful influence in rural education. These colleges bear the brunt of the preparation of teachers for the vocational courses in agriculture and home economics in high schools, conducted under the Smith-Hughes Law. Last year there were 18,927 of these teachers in preparation, 11,093 of whom were

men and 7,834 were women. This work was financed by $6,150,240 of federal, state, and local funds during the year ending in 1925, and instruction was given to a total of 659,370 pupils, of whom 361,139 were men and 298,231 were women. Pupils in trade and industrial courses numbered 9,128. There were reported last year 115,737 pupils in state aided vocational schools in addition to schools receiving federal aid. These schools were organized, administered, and taught under the same standards as the federally aided schools. It is the policy in some states to use federal funds for new work only, and state and local funds for schools and classes that have become well established.

The extent of non-vocational instruction in agriculture and home economics is only indefinitely known. This work is being done in thousands of small schools in both junior and senior high school grades. In one state for which data for this work is in hand there were in 1924, 47 "Rural Agricultural Schools" approved by the State Department of Education. These schools employed 388 teachers and enrolled 10,732 pupils in all grades, of whom 5,779 were transported at an average cost per pupil per year of $29.81. In this same state in 1924 there were 1,596 boys' and girls' clubs with a total enrollment of 15,826 members. In one county this work reached one out of every four farm boys and girls between ten and twenty years of age.

GOVERNMENT AGENCIES

Federal aid for research and instruction in agricultural, domestic and industrial subjects gives the national government a means of direct coöperation with states in public school and college programs of work. There is also through the extension work provided in accordance with the Smith-Lever Law a mutual approach by the nation and the states to the problems of out-of-school, continuing education. The development of this work makes the entire state the campus of the colleges of agriculture and applied sciences. This expansion is thought to be one of the chief reasons for the decrease of 14 per cent

in the enrollments in short courses given at the colleges in recent years. There has also been a decrease of 3 per cent in the number of resident courses in agriculture in these colleges, though their total enrollment has increased 112 per cent in the past ten years. These facts also reflect the economic depression which agriculture has experienced. In 1923 the number of counties having extension agents was 2,097, the personnel employed totaled over 3,600 and the amount expended for this work was almost $19,000,000.

The United States Department of the Interior published recently an illustrated poster under the title—"A Federal University for the People." In this "university" ten departments were mentioned: (1) Education, (2) Engineering, (3) Geology, (4) Botany, (5) Zoology, (6) Chemistry, (7) Anthropology, (8) Geography, (9) Psychology, and (10) Research. This is offered as an illustration which suggests the elaborate efforts of both national and state governments for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among American citizens.

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS

International, national, state, and local voluntary organizations such as follow are really educational agencies whose cumulative results are tremendous: The World Agriculture Society, The American Country Life Association, The National and State Granges, The National and State Farm Bureau Federations, National and State Education Associations, The American Association for the Advancement of Science, The National and local Chambers of Commerce, The American Sociological Society, National and State Bankers Associations, as well as thousands of county, and more local, literary and coöperative organizations. Taken together these afford the services of a great national forum in which, among other problems, the questions of rural welfare and progress challenge constructive thinking by the best minds of the nation.

In the program of the 1925 meeting of the American Sociological Society there was a well attended rural section

which presented three programs containing the following subjects: "The Teaching of Rural Sociology," "Extension Work in Rural Sociology," "The Basis of Procedure in Rural Social Work," "Research in Rural Social Control," and "A Research Program in Rural Sociology." These topics indicate the present tendencies in the study of rural society. The rapidity with which research and instruction in this phase of rural education is advancing is shown by a directory of persons giving courses in rural sociology and rural life in the United States issued by the U. S. Department of Agriculture under date of October 1, 1925. This directory carried the names of 556 teachers.

The daily educational nourishment of routine rural life should eventually be enriched by incorporating in it the practical results, in so far as there are such results, from the increasing volume of researches into the intimate facts of daily rural living, with their more or less matured constructive suggestions. The original Country Life Commission reported a strong conviction that the forces that make for rural betterment must themselves be rural. A rural leadership which remains rural in associations, appreciations and participating friendships, in spite of the widespread tendency among rural leaders to withdraw to a comfortable distance from actual rural conditions and needs, is the paramount demand in rural social education. Real rural leaders must have no inferiority complex and must be immune to what Dr. T. N. Carver calls "the assumption of urban superiority."

RESEARCH AND PUBLICITY

Research and publicity are the chief means of keeping educational effort both dynamic and sane. One of the most gratifying present tendencies in rural education is to invoke both of these agencies. The National Society for the Study of Education has under consideration now the project of a year book for publication possibly in 1928 in which several important problems of rural education may be presented after a most thoroughgoing analysis, research, and synthesis by the most competent men and women who are available for such work.

The Agricultural Bureau of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States has recently published a thorough study of the services of the land grant colleges through the enrollment of students in their courses in agriculture. In graduate schools of education doctors' dissertations are constantly being written upon problems in rural education. Among the subjects studied are: attendance, supervision, types of organization, financial resources, methods of distribution of public aid, pupil capacity and achievement, preparation of teachers, vocational education, and courses of study. The research idea is also bearing fruit in a wide range of county studies and even more local studies touching the whole range of needs. State researches of excellent quality have recently been completed in New York and Texas.

Publicity has in recent years taken the form of professional, semi-professional, and information books, magazines, journals, and other forms of weekly and monthly publications. *The Journal of Rural Education*, the official monthly of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, now in its fifth year, and *Rural America*, the monthly organ of the American Country Life Association, now in its third year, are the best illustrations of the newer types of publicity in rural education.

V

RURAL SOCIAL WORK

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Social work, in one form or another, and by other names, has been known to dwellers in the open country and in small towns and villages for a long time. The idea of communal responsibility for the unfortunate members of the community is nearly as old, in most parts of our country, as our civilization itself. It may well be doubted whether there ever was an American community in which there was not one person with enough of the feeling of human brotherhood to be concerned to help or to save the sick, the bereaved, the poor or the wicked. From such ideas and feelings as these, professional social work has developed; and from similar ideas and feelings, crystallized into customary modes of behavior, it develops in any particular community.

I. WHAT IS SOCIAL WORK?

Social work is a modern name for modern, more or less scientific methods of achieving the purposes of these time-honored ideas and feelings—the care, and where possible the rehabilitation, of the unfortunate or incompetent members of society. The field to which these methods are applicable includes, in rural America, the work of the town or county overseer of the poor, the charitable work of the churches, much of the various other social activities which country churches are beginning to develop; that part of the work of the county judge which has to do with such things as the commitment of

people to state institutions, the appointment of guardians for orphaned children and incompetent adults, etc.; and the private efforts of citizens acting individually and in groups for the purpose of caring for the sick, the poor, the aged and infirm, and other unfortunates who are considered worthy of help. It includes also some things which are not so often done by anybody in our rural communities, such as guiding the wayward boy or girl who has not yet done anything wrong but who may do so unless helped by somebody to find a better way of life; improving the environment which the community provides for growing boys and girls; and protecting children from negligent or abusive parents. The Committee on Rural Social Work of the American Country Life Association has suggested the following list of social problems as roughly defining the appropriate field of activity of a county social work agency:

(a) Broken or incapable families requiring aid.
(b) Abused, neglected, dependent, delinquent, and otherwise handicapped children, requiring care or protection by others than their parents.
(c) Care of the aged dependent.
(d) Care of feeble-minded and mentally diseased persons.
(e) Prevention of juvenile delinquency and crime.
(f) School attendance and child labor.
(g) Housing conditions.
(h) Community organization for any social welfare movement.[1]

In short, social work is "the art of helping people out of trouble," [2] and of helping people to keep out of trouble.

Although much activity in the field of social work is found, and has always been found, in the rural communities of the United States, social work as a scientific method of dealing with the various kinds of trouble which people get into has developed almost exclusively in the larger cities. How much of this method or technique rural people can profitably make use of in their own communities is a question which ought to be faced frankly and answered honestly. Out of the experience of the larger cities, experts or specialists in various types of

[1] Report of Committee on Rural Social Work, in *Proceedings of the Seventh National Country Life Conference*, p. 171.
[2] *Cf. The Art of Helping People Out of Trouble*, by Karl De Schweinetz.

social work have been developed. These specialists are gradually producing a literature of social work and a body of scientific methods for dealing with these problems. They have organized more than a score of schools for training social workers. These experts with their schools, their literature, and their scientific methods, constitute a constantly growing professional resource which rural people ought to be able to use to advantage.[3]

II. THE AVAILABILITY OF SOCIAL WORK TO RURAL COMMUNITIES

Within the last twenty or thirty years, considerable progress has been made in establishing channels through which the resources of social work may be placed at the service of rural communities. Before 1910 some of the leaders in social work began to realize that there was need for their service outside the large urban centers. In 1908, for instance, the State Charities Aid Association of New York, instituted its far-sighted policy of organizing county agencies which employ trained social workers for the care of dependent children. Isolated experiments on a county-wide basis had been made by the same agency as early as 1901. The general movement was greatly stimulated during the war period by the discovery of unexpectedly high percentages of mental and physical deficiencies among rural draftees, and by the tremendous expansion of various organizations like the Red Cross. Although it was impossible after the war enthusiasm subsided for the social agencies to hold all the territory they had occupied, the net result was to establish social work in many rural districts where it had not before been available, and to arouse social agencies to a permanent interest in the social problems of rural communities.

Occupation of the Rural Territory by National Agencies. In another part of this volume will be found a list of the national

[3] For a brief outline of the present status and activity of social work the reader is referred to *The Profession of Social Work,* a pamphlet published by the American Association of Social Work; and for a more complete description of the field and methods, to the following books: *What Is Social Work?* L. A. Halbert; *Education and Training for Social Work,* James H. Tufts; and *Social Work,* Edward T. Devine.

agencies engaged in rural social work, and a description of the services which each of these agencies is prepared to render. Some of these agencies, it will readily be seen, are not doing social work as it has been defined in this article. Others, although doing social work within this definition, have not established local units or placed social workers in local rural districts. Probably a list of the county secretaries or executives of the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., the Red Cross, the National Tuberculosis Assn., and the Boy Scouts would represent a large part of the social workers established in local rural districts by national agencies.

There are 124 full time county Y. M. C. A. secretaries working in rural districts. The Y. W. C. A. has 39 county or district secretaries in rural territory. The Red Cross has approximately 400 secretaries in predominantly rural counties. The Boy Scouts have approximately 225 county or district executives. There are about 90 secretaries employed by county committees of the state tuberculosis associations. On the basis of these figures, the total number of county secretaries maintained by national social agencies may be roughly estimated at 1500.

Unfortunately, the above estimate cannot be taken to mean that the resources of social work are fully available to the rural communities in half of the 3000 counties of the United States, for there are many counties in which more than one of these agencies has a secretary. It would almost certainly be safe to assume that duplications would reduce the total number of counties served to not more than a thousand. Nor is this the only discount that must be made. Dr. H. Paul Douglass, in a study of the services of five national agencies to country boys and girls,[4] has presented evidence showing that even within the territory covered the rural population is only partially served. The service tends to center in the villages and towns and does not reach the greater part of the open country population. The writer's own observations in several counties indi-

[4] H. Paul Douglass, *How Shall Country Youth Be Served?* New York: George H. Doran Company, 1925.

cate that this tendency is not peculiar to agencies serving boys and girls. Finally, allowance must be made for the fact that many of these county secretaries are not adequately equipped to represent the social work profession. The success of the national agencies in securing support from the public has been due, in part at least, to the comparative simplicity and definiteness of their programs. As a natural consequence, ability to administer the particular program of the agency has been an indispensable qualification for local and field agents, while training in social work, though desirable, has not been deemed equally important. The efforts of national agencies to extend the resources of social work to the rural field have provided rural society with many specialists trained to administer certain programs, but the broad knowledge and skill required to deal with the social problems of the rural community have been provided only incidentally and much less extensively.

State and Local Agencies. It would be a very difficult task to determine how much has been achieved in the development of rural social work by purely local agencies. Here and there, one would probably find many enterprises of the general character of the Monmouth County League for Social Service, in New Jersey, which has been described in a publication of the Children's Bureau.[5] Such purely local experiments are valuable as demonstrations of what local groups can do under favorable circumstances, but it is not apparent that their contribution to the extension of social work into rural territory has, so far, been large in the aggregate. On the whole, such local effort as has been manifest in this field has been largely stimulated and directed by state and national agencies.

Any consideration of the efforts of state agencies, must take some notice of the great diversity of approach to the problem in different states. In some states, for example, there has been little effort to encourage the employment locally of trained social workers. This has been especially true, perhaps, in New England where there are more difficulties than elsewhere

[5] *County Organization for Child Care and Protection,* Children's Bureau Bulletin No. 107.

in organizing the county as an administrative unit for social work. In some of these states, Massachusetts and Connecticut especially, a great deal of excellent rural social work is being done by centralized state organizations. But the feeling is growing, in Connecticut at any rate, that the needs of the rural communities of the state cannot be adequately met on this basis. On the other hand, in those states where definite effort has been made to encourage local organization in the administration of social work, two very different methods of attack will be found which may be designated the legislative approach and the educational approach. North Carolina, Missouri, and Minnesota may be cited as outstanding examples of the first type—states in which comprehensive laws have been passed setting up county boards of public welfare or child welfare, some of which employ trained social workers. The educational approach is well illustrated by New York, California, Iowa, Florida, and Georgia, although these are by no means the only states in which effort of this kind is being exerted. In these states the method is to bring leaders in the various counties to understand their local social problems and to appreciate the need for expert service. By this method one county after another is brought to the point of supporting one or more trained social workers, sometimes under public, sometimes under private auspices, and also under a combination of both.[6]

Considerable variety is found, too, in the character of the agencies which in the different states are leading the movement for the development of rural social work. In North Carolina, Missouri, and Minnesota the law places the primary responsibility upon state boards. In New York the movement has been led by the State Charities Aid Association, in Iowa by social workers on the staff of the extension division of the state university, in Florida by a few energetic leaders including a Red Cross field secretary, in Georgia by the State Council of Social Agencies and the State Department of Public Welfare,

[6] For a full description of the organization for county social work in Minnesota, North Carolina, California, New Jersey, and New York, see Children's Bureau Bulletin No. 107, *Country Organization for Child Care and Protection.*

and so on. In several states the state conference of social work has played an important rôle in the movement.

The net result of all these efforts in terms of trained social workers employed in rural counties is hard to estimate. Thirty-five counties in New York, 25 counties in Florida, and 14 counties in Iowa, it is reported to the writer, have employed one or more trained social workers. On the basis of such inadequate sources of information as personal contacts with individual social workers from various states and membership lists of the National Conference of Social Work, the number of county social workers now serving in rural territory as a result of the efforts of purely state agencies may be estimated at 500, with considerable confidence that any accurate study which may be made in the near future will establish the number well within this limit.

Summary of Part II. Combining the estimates of the two preceding sections gives an estimate of 2,000 county social workers of one kind or another for the rural territory—roughly, 1,200 case workers, 500 recreation and group workers, and 300 specialists of other kinds. These two thousand workers are assumed, in the premise, to have sufficient training or experience to have been approved for appointment by some national or state agency. Many of them, however, are extremely specialized in their equipment, and many more have only a minimum of training or experience. On the whole it seems safe to say that probably not more than a quarter of them are adequately equipped to deal in a broadly constructive and scientific way with the social problems of the communities which they serve.

III. EMERGING PROBLEMS

The Problem of Duplication. It has already been suggested that the available supply of rural social workers working under the auspices of national agencies is not uniformly distributed over the occupied rural territory. In some counties representatives of several of the national agencies will be found, and, on the other hand, there may be some counties in which there are

no national agencies represented at all. The same condition is true in only slightly less degree of the service of state agencies. The problem is serious from several points of view. In the first place, as long as the resources of the agencies are inadequate to completely occupy the rural territory, the multiplication of agencies in one county means deprivation of other counties. Secondly, the multiplication of agencies in one county means competition for financial support and for the time and energy of local leaders in that county, and these resources are limited in most rural counties. In the third place, this method of promotion results in a fragmentary treatment of the social problems of rural communities. No local agency is established whose function is to study the social problems of the county as a whole and to work out a long time program of improvement adapted to that particular local situation.

The problem will not be easy to solve. For one thing definite programs, especially when they can be epitomized in a symbol or charged with an emotional appeal, evoke a more ready response from the layman than general discussions of social problems. Also, some of the national agencies, and state agencies, too, have already been established long enough in some sections so that definite bonds have been established in certain local groups which will not be easily broken. Nevertheless, some solution must be found, if not for the territory already occupied, then at least for purposes of extension.

A most hopeful indication is the recognition of the importance of the problem which is being manifested by the agencies themselves. Within the last five years, four national councils of social agencies have been organized for the purpose of solving just such problems as this. A study of the interrelationships of national agencies made by the National Information Bureau in 1922 for a Conference of National Social Agencies, has done much to stimulate the general movement toward coördination.[7] From the rural viewpoint, the most important

[7] Report of a Study of the Interrelation of the Work of National Social Agencies, in Fourteen American Communities, Porter R. Lee, Walter W. Pettit and Jane M. Hoey, The National Information Bureau, New York, 1922.

of all these projects is the National Council of Agencies Engaged in Rural Social Work. It is regrettable that funds have not been forthcoming to establish this Council as a functioning group with a full time staff as the other national councils have been established. In spite of this handicap, however, the Council has already done much to bring about a unification of ideas and plans among the rural departments of the agencies represented.

Various scattering experiments in combining the programs of two or more national agencies in a single county organization may be found. Most of these combinations, doubtless, are the result of local demand, but in one case, at least—the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A.—the national officers are experimenting definitely with a policy of this sort. The social workers' group at the Columbus Conference of the American Country Life Association in 1924 made a strong appeal for more efforts along this line.

Within the last eight years state councils of social agencies have been organized in several states. Not all of them have functioned successfully, however, and one has recently disbanded. The chief difficulty of state councils seems to be that of finding adequate sources of financial support. Only the Georgia council has employed a secretary. It would seem to be worth while for some agency interested in rural social work to make a careful study of the problems of state councils of social agencies to determine what can be done to facilitate their development on a functioning basis.

County councils of social agencies have appeared here and there, but the outstanding achievements in this field are not, strictly speaking, councils of social agencies. The county federations for social work in Florida, for instance, act not only as councils of the agencies participating but also as administrative agencies employing and directing the social work staff for the county.[8] The same thing is true of the County Social

[8] *Cf.* Lucy Chamberlain Ryan, "Behind the Boom in Florida," in *Survey Graphic*, Feb. 1, 1926.

Service Leagues in Iowa.[9] The county conferences organized by the State Conference of Social Work in Wisconsin, on the other hand, seem to be much more inclusive in interest and personnel than would be expected in a council of social agencies, and the same may be said of the county councils organized by the Coöperative Education Association of Virginia.

The Problem of Support. Support includes more than the giving of money. It includes service on boards of directors and committees and volunteer work. It includes also, in a sense, using the services of an agency, joining its activities or coming to it for help. The problem of support for social work in rural districts is only partially produced by the inadequacy of economic resources. For the rest it consists in a difference of opinion between social workers and rural people as to what kind of expert service, and how much of it, is needed in any particular local district.

"We don't need a social worker; we haven't any poor in this county," is a statement that is made over and over again by rural people—even in counties which are spending thousands of dollars a year in various forms of poor relief. Scarcely less prevalent is the opinion that the local community can deal with its social problems quite effectively enough in its own way. A general attitude of fatalism toward social problems—a feeling that they must be left to work themselves out—often contributes, along with these two definite opinions, to an antagonistic reaction on the part of rural people to the overtures of social work. On the other hand, social workers often hold rural institutions and rural ways in contempt. They are concerned over the dangers of a too careless giving of relief and undiscriminating neighborly help. They see the failures of rural agencies, and become enthusiastic for a radical change which will substitute approved social work methods for the rural ways of dealing with these problems. The problem of support is in no small degree a problem of reconciling these two points of view.

[9] *Cf. The Iowa Plan for Organization of a County Social Service League,* University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, No. 100.

The present status of this problem is that the social agencies have become established, for the most part, only in those places where support has been most readily forthcoming, resulting in the duplication of agencies in some counties and the neglect of other counties, and in the concentration upon villages and towns and the neglect of open country areas within counties which have already been noted. There seems to be little doubt that some combination of rural and urban territory must be made for purposes of supporting social work. Dr. Jesse Steiner has suggested [10] that such a combination seems to be the only way of securing adequate financial support, but he insists that the enterprise must be so organized that genuine participation by rural groups is secured. This last stipulation is precisely what social agencies have been least successful in accomplishing.

As a way out of this difficulty, it has been suggested by some that rural social work should be developed under the auspices of and as a by-product of the economic organizations of farmers. Two of the farmers' coöperative marketing associations—the Burley tobacco association in Kentucky and the tobacco association in Virginia and North Carolina—have actually employed social workers. Judging by the study made by Landis,[11] however, the outlook is not hopeful for an extensive development of rural social work by this method. From the viewpoint of the social agencies, it fails to reach the root of the problem, which is the development in rural people of a different set of attitudes toward social work.

Among the experiments and efforts which seem most promising in this connection are the district and county conferences which are being developed in several states, the community scoring movement which has been given special attention in West Virginia and Wisconsin, the "institute courses" for various county officials and volunteers which are being organized by several state conferences of social work, and the efforts of social work leaders to draw rural leaders into discussions of rural

[10] Jesse L. Steiner, *Bases of Procedure in Rural Social Work*, paper read at a meeting of the American Sociological Society, December, 1925.

[11] B. Y. Landis, *Social Aspects of Farmers' Coöperative Marketing*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925.

social problems at state and national conferences. But more important, perhaps, than any of these is the slow, persistent educational effort which is being exerted by certain agencies. The county organization work of the State Charities Aid Association in New York because of its early beginnings and comparatively long history of progress is possibly an outstanding example of this type of effort, but this agency is by no means alone in this field. More recently a number of state departments of public welfare have taken a hopeful step in adding to their staffs county organizers whose function seems to be conceived in terms of gradually developing the present charitable and correctional work of the counties in their respective states into something better. Anything which promotes a better understanding between social workers and rural people is a step toward the solution of the problem of support.

Summary of Part III. Rural social work is a battlefield of ideas and sentiments. Social work leaders themselves hold widely different theories as to the objectives which should be set up and as to the best methods of reaching the objectives. Social workers are divided into legions each following its own banner, and conflicts between these groups, if not the rule, are at least very common. Social agencies, for the most part, do not think of establishing rural social work except at the level of urban standards. They are imbued with the expert's intolerance. Rural people, on the other hand, are almost determined to have nothing to do with these new fangled city notions. Social work, along with most of the other expert services, is being drawn into the rising urban-rural conflict, instead of being, as it should, the adjusting agency which integrates the conflict. Rural social work is chaotic and the order which is to come out of it is, as yet, scarcely discernible.

VI

THE RURAL WORK OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

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Owing to the comparatively small number of Catholic clergy in the United States during the first half of the nineteenth century, the general policy of the bishops and priests was to encourage Catholics to remain in the larger centers where their spiritual needs could be more readily cared for. This policy, of course, was not, generally, consciously formulated nor always successful. The Catholic pioneer immigrants made their way westward and settled either far from their co-religionists, or took up land in close proximity to each other. In the former case they were generally lost to the Church; in the latter, a priest was soon supplied and a nucleus of parish life formed.

EARLY DEVELOPMENTS

In the second half of the century, groups of Catholic immigrants from Europe, made their way into the Ohio and Mississippi valleys accompanied by clergy from their native countries. In certain cases bishops, secular clergy and religious orders established farm colonies. Such, to mention a single instance, was the Irish settlement in Minnesota promoted by Archbishop Ireland of St. Paul.

Dioceses were soon established in the more important centers of the country and it naturally became the duty of the bishops to provide priests for the remote groups of faithful. With the increase of population, these ecclesiastical divisions were multi-

plied until now there are in the United States about 110 archdioceses and dioceses with an archbishop or bishop at the head of each. The diocese is the effective administrative organization of the Church, and the bishop its administrative head. Each diocese is divided into parishes in charge of a pastor appointed by the bishop. From this explanation it will be seen that the local administration of rural activities is entirely in the hands of the local pastor and his superior, the bishop, and that no local work is undertaken by the Rural Life Bureau in the Social Action Department of the National Catholic Welfare Conference.

The rapid growth of the Church in the large cities has naturally demanded the immediate attention of the bishops. This is to be expected with the administrative problems which arose from the establishment of schools, hospitals and charitable institutions to serve the city population. But the solicitude of the bishops extended to the remotest parishes of their dioceses and certain general lines of rural policy emerged.

Such a general policy was involved in the appointment of rural pastors. Most generally, newly ordained priests were sent to city parishes as assistants for a shorter or longer period. They were then promoted to a pastorate in a rural parish where, after a period of years of successful administration, they might be transferred to the charge of a city parish. Promotions were thus cityward. Naturally, the demand for hospitals was first felt in the larger centers, and religious communities responded to the demand by establishing city hospitals. Under the direction of the bishops, religious communities were encouraged to establish hospitals in smaller centers and today a large number of hospitals under Catholic auspices in smaller towns and cities serve considerable rural population.

Likewise, the larger parishes naturally lead the way in establishing parish schools, but the rural parishes as soon as they had sufficient numbers, followed the example. The extent to which parish schools were established differs in different sections, but where country parishes are backward in establishing parish schools, it will be generally found that city parishes in

the same sections are likewise backward. The parish school became a social agency of the first importance, integrating religion with education, and both with the social life and vocational preparation of the young folks.

RURAL CATHOLIC EDUCATION

The extent of rural activity in the different ecclesiastical provinces (or groups of dioceses) in the United States, may be seen from the sub-joined table compiled from the Official Catholic Directory which shows the percentage of parish school children in the various provinces who are attending the rural parish schools.

RURAL CATHOLIC SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

PROVINCE	PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN IN RURAL SCHOOLS
Baltimore	8.1
Boston	2.6
Chicago	7.8
Cincinnati	11.3
Dubuque	46.6
Milwaukee	23.1
New Orleans	30.4
New York	3.1
Oregon City	13.4
Philadelphia	5.7
St. Louis	25.5
St. Paul	35.7
San Francisco	4.6
Santa Fe	17.7

Most of the Catholic churches serving rural populations are located in villages or small towns, although there are certain sections where one may find numerous parish plants consisting of church, school and rectory, situated in the open country. The general tendency, however, has been toward building the Church in the trading center of the community.

POLICIES

In general, it may be said that the policy of the Catholic Church has been toward long pastorates. It is common for a

priest to remain more than a quarter of a century as pastor of the same parish. The effect of this stability of tenure has been to enable him to enter into the lives of his people to a remarkable extent.

The Catholic rural parish has commonly entered into the recreational life of its young people. Ball games after services on Sunday have been common traditions during the summer in many sections. The parish societies have exercised a supervision over the dances and other forms of social amusement of the young folks.

There has, however, been another side to the effect of the Catholic school on the rural population. Very many small rural parishes were unable to establish parish schools, with the result that the strong Catholic schools in the cities, became a magnet to attract Catholic families to the city. Thus, the cityward tendency of the rural population often became accentuated by the city parish schools.

THE PROGRAM OF THE NATIONAL CATHOLIC WELFARE CONFERENCE

The rural program of the Catholic Church in America is outlined by the Rural Life Bureau in the Social Action Department of the National Catholic Welfare Conference. Right Reverend Peter J. Muldoon, D.D., Bishop of Rockford, Illinois, is chairman of the Social Action Department, and Reverend Edwin V. O'Hara, Eugene, Oregon, is Director of the Rural Life Bureau. The primary object of the Bureau is to be of service to rural parishes and other organizations which deal with the rural problem. Since the development of the rural parish is conditioned by whatever affects rural life, the Bureau is concerned with the entire range of rural problems and undertakes to show how the parish and similar organizations may take part in the solution of these problems.

1. *Economic.* The program includes the promotion of a Christian view of land tenure, of wide diffusion of land ownership and of easy access to the land by bona fide operators

and assistance to the coöperative movement, with safeguards against its becoming merely capitalistic, which is the case when coöperation leads farmers to produce only for the market and not primarily for the family. The program has in view the development of the self-sufficient community eliminating the economic waste of unnecessary transportation. Other interests are the promotion of business administration among farmers, and the use of the facilities provided by the agriculture colleges.

2. *The Farm Home.*—The program recognizes the farm as the native habitat of the family, the place where economic forces work for the unity of the family; where the children are an economic asset; and where the children receive an apprenticeship in an important profession. It urges the avoidance of unsuitable work for women and children; the extension of home conveniences by proper home architecture, the introduction of light, power and water in the rural home, and the electrification of the rural community.

3. *Health.*—The Church has always maintained an interest in hospital service, and in the medical and nursing professions. The rural program calls for the extension of these services to the rural country communities, coöperation with all the forces which can supply the services to the rural communities, and the establishment of health clinics in connection with rural schools and religious vacation schools.

4. *Social.*—The program recognizes the value of the cooperative movement in binding communities and neighborhoods together, enabling them to promote their social life more easily. It aims at unifying the social life of the community through the parish school and the parish hall, reinforcing the social bond with the religious bond. It suggests the employment of dramatics and the promotion and supervision of the social life of the young people by the Church, rather than an attempt to suppress the social life, or to ignore it.

5. *Culture and Education.*—Rural culture is necessary to make country life permanently satisfying—financial success is not sufficient. The integration of education and religion is a fundamental necessity, since a high grade rural clergy cannot

be maintained if the clergy is cut off from access to the educational life of the rural community. Religion, with its teaching, its worship, and its aesthetic appeal, provides the most important element of culture. The rural secondary school should interpret the rural life to its pupils, and not be patterned after the city school.

6. *Religion and Worship.*—The rural life program recognizes that a parish school is by far the most effective agency for promoting religion. Where, owing to fewness of members, a parish school is impracticable, the Rural Life Bureau advocates the multiplication of religious vacation schools and of religious correspondence education. Both of these means are now employed by a growing number of rural parishes.

The two general agencies for the promotion of the Catholic rural life program are the monthly publication, *Catholic Rural Life,* which circulates among the rural pastors and their people, and the Catholic Rural Life Conference which holds a national convention annually. The office of the Catholic Rural Life Bureau is at 1062 Charnelton St., Eugene, Oregon.

VII

THE SITUATION AMONG PROTESTANT RURAL CHURCHES

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If rural church statistics only should be reviewed in this paper the situation would appear somewhat disheartening, because the statistical measurements which are usually applied to churches would show our country churches to be in a rather bad way. On the other hand, if consideration is given to the recent reawakening in the country church throughout America, a more encouraging situation is presented.

Although the scope of this topic is very extensive and the space for developing it somewhat limited, yet in fairness to the country church an attempt will be made to set forth the rural church situation in the two aspects above indicated.

STATISTICS OF RURAL CHURCHES

Some statistics of town and country churches, drawn from *The Town and Country Church in the United States* by Morse and Brunner (Doran, 1923), are as follows:

(*a*) There are approximately 101,477 rural churches in the United States (towns with population under 5,000 considered rural). Ninety-four per cent of the rural churches were in open country and villages with less than 2,500 population. One-seventh of rural communities were without any church. Forty-two per cent of rural communities were without a resident pastor. Many other rural communities were overchurched. Denomi-

national mission boards were supporting many competitive rural churches.

(*b*) *Growth and Decline of Rural Churches.*—Of 5,552 representative rural churches throughout the United States, two-fifths were not growing; two-thirds with less than 50 members were not growing. Of one denomination: eighty-five per cent of churches served by pastor with more than 4 churches were not growing; forty-eight per cent of churches with absentee pastor were not growing.

(*c*) *Membership.* Sixteen per cent of the rural population were members of Protestant churches; sixty-three members were in the average enrolment; forty-six members were the average enrolment in the open country; twenty-eight per cent of the listed members were reported inactive.

(*d*) *Rural Pastors.*—Thirty per cent of rural churches had resident pastors, not sharing services with any other church; fifty per cent of these were engaged in another occupation; sixteen per cent of the open-country churches had a resident pastor; thirteen per cent of all churches were without a pastor; 34,181 additional rural pastors were needed to give each rural community a resident pastor; $1,400 was the average salary of the rural pastor, this figure including $250, estimated as the annual rental value of a parsonage. Fifty-five per cent of the pastors were provided with a parsonage.

(*e*) *Sunday Schools.*—Twenty-five per cent of rural churches had no Sunday School. The average Sunday School membership was 86. The average Sunday School membership in open country was 64.

From these figures it will be seen that rural communities are generally overchurched, although 12 per cent of the communities are without any Protestant church; that competition is aggravated and continued by mission grants; that nearly half the communities are without a resident spiritual adviser; that nearly half the rural churches are losing in membership or just holding their own; that the small church is threatened with extinction; that the church served by a non-resident pastor is on the decline; that the average membership is very small (84 per

cent of the rural population is not connected with the church); that rural pastors are overworked and underpaid; and that many churches are giving practically no religious instruction to their children.

But a more encouraging aspect will appear when we consider the situation from the viewpoint of the recent awakening in the country church and the movements now in operation to change these conditions.

THE WORK OF CHURCH ORGANIZATIONS

Ever since Roosevelt's Country Life Commission made its report the rural church movement has developed from different sources and in varying ways. No attempt will be made to follow this movement chronologically since the different phases of activity had begun in small ways before we had any specific consciousness of their national significance. This fact makes it impossible to report the movement chronologically, although specific dates might be assigned to certain developments.

(*a*) *Rural Church Departments.*—The Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A. was the first denomination to see the need of a separate department to care for the peculiar requirements of its country churches. It organized a department about 1909 and called to its leadership that great pioneer, Dr. Warren H. Wilson. The labors of Dr. Wilson and his co-workers soon convinced other denominations that they too should have special representation for their rural constituencies. The denominations with organized rural church departments and paid executives now giving full-time service are—The Methodist Episcopal Church; Methodist Episcopal Church, South; Presbyterian in U. S. A.; Congregational Churches; Protestant Episcopal Church; Reformed Church in the U. S.; and the Presbyterian Church in the U. S. Other denominations have part-time workers whose major interests cover a broader field than the strictly rural. It is likely that some of these will ultimately give more specific attention to the church needs of the countryside, and

most of them are now coöperating in the interdenominational field.

(*b*) *Interdenominational and Non-Denominational Agencies.*—Undoubtedly one of the most important interdenominational efforts for those interested in country church work was the Interchurch World Movement. By means of its nation-wide church surveys it secured statistical data regarding the rural church on the most extensive scale ever attempted. Upon the collapse of this movement there was danger of losing the value of this work, but finally a non-denominational agency (privately financed)—The Institute of Social and Religious Research—was organized to conserve the results, with Dr. E. deS. Brunner in charge of rural surveys. This organization has interpreted and edited the survey data of the Interchurch World Movement and has initiated other important studies. Other agencies with which the rural church secretaries are coöperating are The Home Missions Council, The Council of Women for Home Missions, The American Country Life Association, The Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, and The International Association of Agricultural Missions. The Councils of Churches in Ohio, Connecticut and Massachusetts have rendered great assistance in developing rural church programs. The Massachusetts Council employed a full-time rural secretary in 1925 and the Ohio Council has made contributions by following up the Interchurch Survey and organizing county councils of churches.

The Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. have also organized rural departments with full-time executives. They have extended their services into rural America by means of county and district organization. For the most part these groups try to develop a coöperative program which has proved very helpful to our rural boys and girls at a time when they have "outgrown" the Sunday school and have no other organization to champion their cause.

(*c*) *Coöperative Training.*—Realizing the need of preparing pastors for the rural ministry, several denominations have organized summer training schools for rural pastors. This movement finally developed into a coöperative endeavor, when the state colleges and universities in different sections of the country

established interdenominational schools together with coöperating denominations. The rural secretaries are busy for many weeks during the summer teaching rural-church and community organization methods at these schools. The rural church departments have made scholarships available to a number of their rural pastors in order that they may take advantage of this special training.

But we need trained lay workers in our rural churches as well. Upon the recommendation of the rural church secretaries, the Missionary Education Movement is now preparing a study course on the rural church to be used in its mission study course in 1926. In this way it is hoped that lay-workers can be enlisted in larger numbers to carry forward the program of the church in the country.

(*d*) *Government Agencies.*—The public agencies—tax supported institutions—have begun to recognize the place of the church in rural life and are trying to link their services with those of the church in order that all of life may be spiritualized. Country school teachers are urged by their superintendents to become interested in the community as a whole, in all its problems, and in the other institutions that are serving the local people. Agricultural colleges are preparing vocational teachers of agriculture and domestic science for rural high schools and for coöperation with the religious forces of the community. The departments of agricultural extension of our state colleges and universities are now frequently taking the stand that the spiritual values of farm life are the most important, and the local representatives of the farm bureau and the home bureau are eager to work with, in and through the churches in order better to serve their constituencies. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the United States Department of Agriculture is now preparing a bulletin for release in 1926 which will set forth the many ways in which rural pastors and their churches can coöperate with the extension forces. Health and educational agencies are being requested to do the same. The Extension Department of the West Virginia Agricultural College has a very complete and effective program of community coöperation which

it is promoting in hundreds of communities throughout the state; the whole program centers in the church as the one institution to establish spiritual goals and values in all community endeavor. This plan has been in operation long enough to prove the soundness of the policy, as any study of its results will show. Other extension departments are much interested in the plan.

(*e*) *Federation and Consolidation of Local Churches.*—This movement has been very rapid in recent years, especially since the war. Over-churched communities realized that their continued competition would not bring adequate religious service to the community, and they also appreciated the fact that the practical application of Christ's principles in every-day living is more important than shades of difference in doctrinal beliefs. Therefore local church people united into one congregation with one pastor giving his whole time to the spiritual needs of that community, and with an equipment extensive enough to house the entire church program. In some cases this church was organized as the federated type, in which each person still maintained his membership in his original denomination but united with all others for local work. Others were of the denominational type when competing churches withdrew by agreement from the field. Some of these denominational community churches enroll those of other denominations on an affiliated membership list. Other very successful and well organized churches are independent of any denomination. All these types are organized for the same purpose, however, of bringing an adequate church unit to a much overchurched community. There are probably a thousand of these community churches in rural communities throughout the United States and the number seems to have been increasing. Some of our home mission boards are now withdrawing aid from overchurched fields and are encouraging their people to coöperate in the establishment of some form of community church. This is a hopeful movement and promises to counteract much of the present overchurching in rural areas.

(*f*) *The Larger Parish Plan.*—This movement had its beginning in the Congregational Churches through the efforts of Dr. Malcolm Dana, the director of their rural church work. Several

"larger parishes" have been organized in this denomination and other denominations have begun to use the plan. A few interdenominational larger parishes recently organized are also operating with apparent success. The principle of the larger parish is that a pastor is called to a definite geographical area rather than to a church, and he with his staff of workers is responsible for the spiritual welfare of the total population of that area. Instead of having many small churches of different denominations served by several underpaid and overworked pastors, the area is united under one religious program whether denominational or interdenominational. Church membership is held in the central organization located generally at the most convenient community center. A fully equipped plant for worship, religious education, social and recreational functions, is usually located at this center for use by the whole area. However, preaching points are maintained at convenient places throughout the parish, either in small church buildings located there, or in the school buildings, where services are held weekly and midweek activities are carried on for the immediate neighborhood. The pastor in charge need not be proficient along many lines as is expected of the average pastor to-day, for he will have his expert assistants in religious education, social and recreational activities, and finance. These assistants may or may not be ordained ministers, and in some cases the positions are filled by young women. All members of the staff preach at various points each Sunday. Every one is assigned definite responsibility for a specific part of the religio-social program for the entire area, and through constant consultation and discussion the staff develops the spiritual life of the area in a well-balanced progression. This plant offers, in addition to many other advantages, that of enlisting lay-workers for full-time Christian life service.

(*g*) *Community Effort of Churches.*—Many rural churches have established themselves as community centers, guiding the social as well as the spiritual life of the community, and emphasizing in the minds and hearts of their constituencies the spiritual values of all human endeavor. These churches are coöperating in a very definite way with the schools, the Grange, the Farm

Bureau, the lodges, the farmers' coöperatives. In some communities it has resulted in a central community program with all responsibilities definitely assigned to the different organizations found there. A community calendar of all events by all organizations is another practical feature. In several communities the pastor took the lead in providing a social hall for the area. In others the church organization erected a social hall or fitted the basement of the church building for such functions and made it available to the whole community. One pastor largely through his own efforts secured electricity for his community. Another conducted a farm products' show for the purpose of encouraging better agricultural methods. Others became leaders of boys' and girls' clubs. Through the efforts of still others, community groves were made available for all time to their people. Many have opened the doors of their church to baby clinics and health clinics of all kinds. These are but a few examples. The list could be duplicated with cases of joint endeavor where two or more churches are located in a community. To these might be added examples of joint visitation of all the people in the community by the coöperating pastors, community schools of religious training, daily vacation Bible schools, week-day religious instruction, union Sunday schools and union services. These are indeed evidences of a new spirit and a new vision developing within our rural communities which form a splendid beginning for larger endeavor.

(*h*) *Methods of the Rural Church Departments.*—Finally, a brief statement concerning the methods generally employed by the rural church departments may prove enlightening. In addition to the methods discussed above, the rural secretaries are attempting to analyze the local conditions of individual fields through visitation, conference and survey; to inspire rural vision and endeavor through addresses, illustrated lectures, inspirational and educational articles, rural church papers and bulletins, suggested programs for community work, etc. Through the employment of seminary students for survey and supply work, an effort is made to prepare future ministers for the rural churches

and to inspire them with the opportunities for service which are to be found in the country. The task of the rural secretary, therefore, is largely to analyze, instruct, inspire, advise, demonstrate.

VIII

ORGANIZED RURAL RECREATION

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The chief reason for considering "rural recreation" as distinct from recreation in municipalities is not that country people are essentially different from city people, but that the task of getting suitable facilities for recreation in the country and providing for their administration presents problems that must be met in a different way. For instance, the per capita cost of trained play leadership on a municipal playground used by hundreds of children every day is quite different from that for a playground in the open country or a small village where but few children are to be accommodated and where capacity use happens only on occasions that are weeks and even months apart. Also the rural problem is a special one because *organized* play is fairly new in the country and only recently has it been considered necessary to make special provision for it.

THE FORMATION OF RECREATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

With the increase of coöperation in the industrial life of the country there has developed a greater sense of community responsibility for social and recreational interests. Formerly, recreation in the country was decidedly an informal spontaneous, incidental matter. Except for picnics and "parties" it was very much of an individual or small group affair. Even the schools had little or no playground space—never any play equipment—and the children were admonished not to "play along the way" going to or from school. In fact, play was quite generally

looked upon as a waste of time, or at best a youthful folly that must be tolerated. This is in sharp contrast with what the rural districts are experiencing to-day in the form of community play festivals, large equipped school playgrounds, school buildings constructed and furnished to accommodate recreational uses, community houses, athletic fields, reservations for camping, and organizations with trained recreational leaders. The promotion of organizations for boys and girls such as Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Girl Scouts, Woodcraft League, Boy Rangers, Four H Clubs, etc., is directing respectful attention to play for young people and emphasizing the need of space and equipment set aside and dedicated to this use. The time-honored recreation activities have not changed as to their fundamentals, but have been extended and adapted to various programs and situations.

THE TRAINING OF PLAY LEADERS

The most significant thing in recent progress in rural recreation is organization and provision for training play leaders. The training schools for teachers are including in their courses instruction in play leadership and administration. These teachers must also know how to select and train volunteer leaders, because much of the leadership for the small scattered groups must be given by volunteers. The farm and home bureau agents also need this training, since their club organization for boys and girls, the various demonstration centers, and the bureau meetings and picnics have or well may have a strong recreational content. Community singing has come to have a useful and enjoyable place on the program of these meetings.

The church with its community house is the center of much of the recreational life of the country as well as of the city. In this connection dramatics have an important part. Amateur plays, pageants and tableaux seem to be increasingly popular with both the young and the old, and some highly creditable productions are resulting. It is possible that the increased use of motion pictures in rural communities is partly responsible for this growing interest in dramatics. Electric lighting, which is

rapidly coming into practical use in the country, is a helpful agent in extending the use of motion pictures and in facilitating the staging of amateur plays. A recent issue of a rural weekly paper contained notice of seven amateur plays that were being given in the churches, schoolhouses and halls of that vicinity.

THE BASEBALL SITUATION

Baseball as an amateur sport, particularly in the country districts where its early development took place, is in danger of becoming predominantly professional and to function chiefly as a spectacle for the crowds instead of as a delightful form of recreation in which many may participate. Inter-community rivalry stimulated artificially by betting has resulted in local teams made up partly of hired players and all sharing to some extent in gate receipts or collections. This results quickly and naturally in a strictly commercial amusement. Boys as well as men at once become spectators instead of participants. The National Amateur Athletic Federation in an effort to save baseball as a fine, wholesome game for boys and men and to help in rescuing it as an amateur sport, has made a country-wide survey and drafted some conclusions and suggestions. These may properly be summarized here as bearing upon the present situation in rural recreation:

This survey shows that in many cities and towns the game is going forward in leaps and bounds due to the inauguration of amateur leagues. It also shows conclusively that baseball has been losing ground in the great majority of the smaller cities and towns due to the fact that they have been trying to conduct it on a semi-professional basis and have been failing miserably in their efforts. The survey further shows that not only have the efforts to conduct the game on a semi-professional basis met with financial failure, but that the towns are not providing facilities for large numbers of boys to play amateur ball.

Briefly, the survey brought out that:

(1) Baseball as a game for the amusement of the spectators in the professional leagues is most successful.

(2) Baseball is flourishing in communities where it is being promoted on a purely amateur basis.

(3) Baseball is suffering or actually "dying out" in communities that are trying to conduct it on a semi-professional basis.

(4) Baseball has been given a "black eye" in many communities due to "irregular" management of semi-professional "town" teams.

(5) Many communities are not providing any place for their boys to play the game.

The National Amateur Athletic Federation believes that:

(1) Baseball is a game which every boy should play because of the physical and mental benefits derived therefrom.

(2) The boys should have an opportunity to play the game under auspices which tend toward the development of high ideals and good citizenship.

(3) Communities are making a serious mistake when they attempt to "import" or "hire" players to represent them.

(4) The home town boys should not expect payment for playing baseball any more than they do for golf and tennis, providing an attempt is not made to "employ" outside players.

(5) Every town, every church, every Sunday school, every fraternal order, every industrial plant, and every neighborhood should have at least one amateur baseball team.

(6) Every community should provide ample baseball grounds for its boys and young men.

(7) The responsible citizens in every community should see that the men selected to administer their baseball are those who will exert a wholesome influence over the players. They should be the type of men who hold high ethical standards of sportsmanship and who can be depended upon not to stoop to petty practices for the sake of "winning."

(8) The life of baseball in the smaller cities and towns, and its survival as our great "national game" is dependent upon its being conducted on a purely amateur basis.

TYPICAL PROJECTS

Automobiles are, of course, exerting a marked influence on free-time activities in the country, and the extension of good roads is an important contributing factor. Country people are able to get quickly and comfortably to and from centers of amusement, and week-end and holiday trips to parks, camp sites and bathing beaches are brought within easy range of practically everyone. State and county park commissions are making wonderful progress in providing these facilities which serve both country and city dwellers. Regional planning, which is coming to include county and township planning, is stimulating and guiding public effort in making provision for its recreational needs. Westchester County, New York, is a notable instance of marked progress in this direction.

As evidence of recent progress in rural recreation it might be well to mention a few typical developments in various parts of the United States. Marion Center, Pa., and the surrounding farming district united to purchase and thus "to preserve forever for the free use of the people" a picnic grove with stream and swimming hole that had been used informally by the public for some time but which was in danger of being sold to a lumber company. Twenty-eight hundred dollars was raised by contributions to purchase the fourteen acres desired. About eight hundred people contributed, fully one-half of whom were farmers. Labor and materials were contributed for cleaning up, grading, draining, and for constructing necessary buildings and conveniences. A board of seven trustees, four of whom were farmers, were elected by the contributors. The ownership rests with the association which was formed for this purpose.

A rural school ground at Stanton, N. J., was equipped with homemade apparatus as the result of interest stimulated by a summer resident. The parent-teacher association coöperated by means of an entertainment, the entire cash outlay was only $40.24. The district superintendent of schools became interested, and the country papers printed a descriptive article with pictures of the playground in use. As a result of the aroused

interest, a small appropriation was made to each rural school in the county to stimulate similar action.

Ulster County, New York, has an annual field day and play festival that came into being through the interest of the principal of the state normal school at New Paltz. The district schools throughout the county receive early in the year the list of events and practice them in preparation for the competitions at the field day. It is a play day for adults as well as children, and is one of the events of the year looked forward to with keen interest.

Near Canandaigua, New York, there was an old one-room schoolhouse erected in 1819. The land allotted for the school was exactly the same size as the building. The outhouses were built on highway land. Someone started an agitation for a better rural school plant. A farmer donated an acre of land and the taxpayers voted a levy of $2,000. The State College of Agriculture contributed plans for building and grounds. Local interest and pride were so stimulated by the new project that an endowment fund was raised by popular subscription to provide a permanent income for the care and improvement of the grounds. Pleasing architecture, well located play apparatus, and artistic planting have produced a country school plant that is yielding a substantial return in service and satisfaction.

A recent government bulletin on the social aspects of recreation places in rural planning contains the following suggestive description of a farmers' community park:

"Near Niagara, North Dakota, is a farmers' park, in the open country, financed, operated, owned, maintained, and used by farmers. Why should country people, in a business partnership with nature itself, have to go to town to enjoy the pleasures of a park? Why should farm families have to go to someone's private grove or lake front for a picnic? Why should farm boys and girls have to go to the town athletic field or playground, in which they have no sense of ownership, for baseball, basket ball, or athletic games and sports?

"These were questions that the farming people about Niagara and Shawnee in North Dakota asked themselves. They already

had a progressive agricultural club. One of the good things about such a club is that the public discussions bring out many valuable ideas, not only about raising wheat, hogs, and potatoes, but also about how to live a good kind of life while raising them. There was little of precedent to guide them, so it was necessary to solve such questions as:

"1. Where should the park be? There was a natural growth of timber along the head of Turtle River which in old days had been the natural gathering place of the countryside, but which private interests had later acquired. This grove was decided upon.

"2. How should the original purchase be financed? Eleven acres would suit their plans, and each acre would cost $200, so $2,200 was the sum needed. They solved this problem by organizing a stock company, incorporated under state laws, the Bachelor's Grove Community Park Association, with shares at $25 each. When the shares were all sold it was found that 95 per cent of them were owned by farmers, with nearly every family in the region the possessor of at least one share. The remaining 5 per cent were held by people of the surrounding villages of 200 to 300 population.

"3. Of what should the improvements consist? Here was pleasure of planning. The first year saw the grounds cleaned of underbrush and surrounded by a fence. The next year a kitchen, a refreshment parlor, and a pavilion 80 by 92 feet were completed. Succeeding improvements included a baseball park, ice house, engine house, check room, lavatories, cement walks and improved roads, three wells with pumps, tables and picnic benches, and an electric-lighting system for buildings, grounds, and the approaches. The cost of the improvements alone amounted to $16,000, although there was considerable voluntary managerial labor.

"4. How should the improvements be financed and the plant maintained? Experience determined the answer to these questions. The income is derived from receipts from athletic games, dances, the lunch and confectionary stands, and the merry-go-round, and other concessions. When an association secures the

use of the ground for a picnic, profits are divided on a percentage basis. A caretaker receives $80 per month for four summer months. At each public entertainment three people are hired at each stand at $3 each per day or night. For dances the orchestra is paid $50 and five ticket takers $1.50 each per night. Electric lighting for all the buildings costs about $15 per night. There is no charge to enter the grounds, open to everyone at all times, but the buildings are locked when not in use and during the summer are in charge of a caretaker, who makes kitchen privileges available to picnickers.

"5. How should the park be used? It was decided that no set program should be arranged, but that the use of the park should be left to the wishes of the community. The following events held, among others, indicate the influence that the park has had on the social life of these country people: (*a*) Opening day, with 5,000 in attendance. (*b*) Picnics. During the summer months there is an average of one picnic a week, held by such organizations as the country farm bureau, the agricultural club, various lodges, the aid societies of the different churches, the American Legion, or the park board, and by groups from neighboring towns. On nearly every Sunday there are family picnics on the grounds. (*c*) Athletic games and contests between neighboring teams. (*d*) Supervised dancing in charge of some of the older people. (*e*) A summar Chautauqua course. (*f*) General meetings by such organizations as high-school societies, boys' and girls' clubs, and the church societies, for which no charge for the use of the grounds is made.

"Times have been hard for the farmers the last two years, and the park during that time has not yielded large profits; but, if imitation be the sincerest flattery, they may be well pleased, for the old settlers' association of the adjoining county, Nelson, secured the Bachelor Grove plans and blue prints and created a similar park; and this can be done easily by any ordinary rural community."

Two counties in Minnesota and two in North Dakota have united in forming a park association and have purchased and developed a forty-acre wooded tract on the Minnesota side of

the Red River as a country recreation center. By means of "working bees" the people of these four counties have cleared up the underbrush, built roads, laid out an athletic field with bleacher seats for 600, erected a pavilion with kitchen, installed electric lights and running water, and fenced the grounds. The report concludes, "When completed, this park with its beautiful trees, ferns, vines, winding drives, and its half-mile of river front, was dedicated to the memory of the local boys who lost their lives in the World War."

In Lincoln County, Washington, twelve miles from any railroad, a farmers' association has purchased and developed a 160-acre tract on which is a grove of natural timber. A half-mile racing track with grandstand, an athletic field, a band stand, a dance pavilion, a restaurant, and camping facilities are included in the equipment. Tents for agricultural exhibits have recently been added. Several similar projects have been undertaken in other parts of the state.

One of the most interesting projects in the direction of rural recreation has taken place in West Virginia, where the state by gift and purchase has acquired 35 acres of the old Stonewall Jackson farm on the west fork of the Monongahela River and placed it at the disposal of the State School of Agriculture as a camp for the 4-H clubs. Thirty-five counties have provided county training camps for these boys' and girls' clubs, and the state camp is the climax of the plan. The 4-H club program includes a wide range of activities that make for the best of head, heart, hand and health. They are given a practical application to everyday life. Recreation has an important place among the activities.

Notable progress is being made by several states in the development of a system of state parks. The natural scenic beauties of forest, mountain, lake and stream are thus being preserved, and camping and picnic facilities for country and city people are thus made available. State parks within an easy day's drive of each other is the ideal set by some of the states. These outing facilities will tend to relieve farmers from petty annoyances occasioned by automobile tourists camping on their property,

and at the same time will provide for rural dwellers interesting objectives for holiday, week-end, and vacation trips. For the districts immediately surrounding these state parks, they serve as comfortable picnic grounds and centers for public meetings and celebrations. Country and city folks are thus brought together in a way that should make for better understanding and coöperation in a wide range of mutual interests.

A bulletin on "Field Days" issued in 1925 by the Department of Education of the State of Alabama contains a wealth of practical information for those arranging school play festivals, especially in the country, and clearly indicates the trend of progress in rural recreation.

IX

FARM WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS

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EARLY ORGANIZATIONS OF FARM WOMEN

Although formal organizations of farm women have developed at a comparatively recent date, discussions among farm women probably existed as early as farm women had any opportunity to get together. As early as May, 1857, a group of farm women in Maryland formed a "Mutual Improvement Association." This organization has been continuous from that date to the present, having recently held its 823rd meeting. The object of the association was "to offer for the benefit of the association such information as we may have obtained, by experience or otherwise, in any way calculated to elevate the minds, increase the happiness, lighten the labor, or add to the comfort of one another, our families or neighbors." Another well known and long continued organization of rural women stated its object as "a means of getting farm women together into groups for daytime meetings in their communities to study and work on farm homemaking problems; also to consider means of closer social contact with neighboring farm women." The form of these early organizations and their meetings were patterned rather closely after that of all orthodox organizations preceding them. A constitution and by-laws were formed and formally adopted. The usual four officers, or their equivalent, were elected and regular meetings were scheduled one or two afternoons a month. The obvious leader was chosen as president, and frequently was reelected year after year. The regular meeting was usually quite

formal in its procedure with regard to roll call, reports, old and new business, etc. A formal paper was read by some one of the group. Usually this responsibility fell upon each of the club members in alphabetical order.

The serious part of the program of these early organizations was followed by a social hour. Food was a dominant feature and conversation was varied. It is probable that as much satisfaction was gained during these informal chats as during the more formal paper of the earlier hours—certain it is that strength and courage were gained during this time as hearts were unburdened and experiences exchanged. This hour undoubtedly was hallowed in the soul of every early farm club woman, and helped her to live through the busy and often lonely days until the group met again.

PRESENT DAY CONDITIONS AND ORGANIZATIONS

What of the present day organizations of farm women? First of all, let us look at the farm woman of to-day and at her environment, that we may better understand the many definite changes which have already come about and appreciate the trends so clearly indicated. The farm woman of to-day lives in a world vastly different from that of her mother and infinitely different from that of her grandmother. During the lifetime of the present day farm woman, mechanical and scientific developments have revolutionized the entire world, the farm no less than the factory. During this same period, the movie, radio, automobile, aeroplane, and countless mechanical devices have been invented, and those powerful servants of man, steam and electricity, have been harnessed to the major appliances helpful in home and farm. Good roads, rural free delivery, telephones, and increased service of press and railroads have served to annihilate distance, and mechanical power has removed much of the drudgery of the earlier day of farm housekeeping. The farm woman of to-day lives in an age of factory production, and many of the productive activities have been removed from the home. In addition, great world movements, together with the

stimulus of the war, have changed public opinion as to the place of women, so that the activities of the farm woman are limited only by her vision, her interests, and her capabilities.

The complexity of life to-day and the realization by farm women of their responsibilities to their children as mothers, to their husbands as partners and companions and to their community for a part in the social, civic, political, educational and spiritual well being of the whole community has materially affected the whole scheme of organizations of farm women. It has affected the type of program, and the whole plan of procedure in the older organizations, and has set up new and democratic standards for the organizations.

The content of the program of the various older organizations of farm women indicates the change referred to. The women are still interested in matters of food, clothing and shelter, pictures, books, music, poetry, and art; but they study these topics from a new angle. Good roads, telephone, automobiles, and radios have dispelled the specter of loneliness and isolation. The farm woman of to-day, like her urban sister, is apt to be beset by too many demands upon her time. Thus she demands that meetings to-day shall make a definite and practical contribution to her every day life. That contribution may concern itself with standards of life, with ways of expending her time, energy and income in the direction of those standards, or it may reach into the civic and political world of her newer responsibilities outside the four walls of her home, but it must challenge her and render to her a practical service of some kind whether that be enlarged knowledge of some basic social or spiritual problem, or improved practices in the training of her children or methods of housekeeping.

Matters of civic interest are considered, and ways and means are devised to realize standards of civic efficiency. The responsibilities of women as voters are given deep study and, either directly or through the League of Women Voters, candidates for office are asked to express their views for the benefit of these rural women. In many of the present day farm women's organizations, coöperative marketing finds important consideration.

Farm women always have done the major part of the farm bookkeeping, of the purchasing, and some of the selling for the farm, but in the earlier years they shrank from consideration of economic or legislative matters, as entirely outside the scope of "womanly" activities.

To-day thousands of farm women are purchasing marketing supplies and selling their home industry products coöperatively, and they are attending to the business end of these activities. Significant of the changes in the type of programs and in the broader considerations accorded to any given topic in the farm women's organizations of to-day are the following programs of a given organization for the years 1915 and 1925.

1915

January—Farmhouse Heating.
February—Farmhouse Plumbing.
March—Farmhouse Architecture.
April—The Women and the Garden.
May—The Farmhouse Yard.
June—Composition of Vegetables, Grains, Meats and Fruits.
July—How to Combine Foods.
August—What Our Club Can Do to Improve Our Community.
September—School Children's Food.
October—Our Duty to Our Schools.
November—Infectious Diseases and Our Quarantine Laws.
December—Personal Hygiene.

1925

January—Present vs. Former Standards of Conduct and Thought: 1. In General. 2. In Our Community.
February—Manners: Personal, Family, School, Neighborhood and Community. How Good Breeding Is Instilled.
March—Fundamentals of Character. Is Present Lawlessness Due in Any Degree to Carelessness about Religious Training? What Is Religion? Our Rural Churches.
April—Helps for Training Children to Be Good Citizens.
May—Physical and Mental Handicaps. Heredity. Mind and Body Health Clinic Results in Modern Schools.
June—Vocational Guidance as Conducted in Our Best School Systems. Making the Most of Ability and Safeguarding Weaknesses.
July—Planning for Our Children's Future. Good Health Birthright, Financing Education, etc. Thrift Training. Value of Our Boys' and Girls' Club Work.
August—Good Kinds of Recreation for Young and Adults.

September—Plans for Coöperating with Teachers for Best Results the Coming Year.
October—Some Christmas Book Suggestions.
November—My Idea of Being in Good Shape for Winter.
December—An Afternoon with Jesus.

Not only have the titles of topics for meetings changed during this past decennium, but so fast have events occurred that the content of a 1925 paper will disclose world wide knowledge of economic and social facts, and a recognition of community responsibilities by the women's organizations, and by individual women, which would not have been dreamed of a decade ago.

TRENDS IN ADMINISTRATION

In addition to this change in program of the meetings the administrative procedure of present day organizations of rural women is also indicative of new trends. There is far less formality to-day, and yet the entire business meeting is carried on with the most approved methods of parliamentary procedure, which every member studies, understands and practices. A far greater amount of democracy prevails. In addition, most of the work of the organization is done through committee activity, thus decentralizing responsibility and developing initiative and ability on the part of all members.

Discussion is rapidly taking the place of the prepared paper at the meetings. For ten or fifteen minutes one member will present some important facts for consideration or will demonstrate some newly developed practice before the group. This is usually done extemporaneously or with the aid of a few notes. The rest of the meeting is taken up by general discussions from the floor, and the one making the presentation seeks to open up the subject for discussion, rather than to pronounce final judgment. Far less time is given to the purely social side of the meeting, as expressed in elaborate feasting. This is not so necessary in this day, since farm women have many opportunities for social contacts. Many organizations of farm women serve no food at their meetings. Where refreshments are still served, only the simplest food is prepared, whether it be a simple

noonday lunch for an all day meeting, or refreshments following an afternoon session.

Most present day organizations of rural women emphasize their work program and they seriously present, or attentively listen to, the topic under discussion. In some organizations of farm women, the program is still as diversified as those of a generation ago, but in others the women of the local unit center their attention upon some outstanding subject which is presented in some form at each meeting of the year, with cumulative effect.

CHANGES IN FORM OF ORGANIZATION

The earlier organizations for farm women were about equally divided between two types—those for women only, and those for men and women, with husband and wife both voting on all matters requiring consideration of the membership. More recently, a type of organization has been developed having family membership—one family, one vote. This has led to some dissatisfaction on the part of farm women who, through proved experience, have demonstrated their abilities and who desire definite responsibilities and definite voting privileges, as well as definite recognition of their achievements. More and more are farm women desiring to become a part of an organization which is one of farm women only, or farm men and women on a basis of equal representation of women and men in places of responsibility and of honor. Farm women are recognizing the value of increased contacts. This is being expressed in the formation of clubs of rural women, in community organizations of farm families, federation of farm women's groups within the county, affiliation with urban groups of women, and in many instances federation with the county, state, and national federations of women's clubs. Farm women are joining many national organizations of varying interests. They are attending national and international meetings. They are becoming more broadgauged in thought and action.

TRENDS IN FUNCTION

Farm women are recognizing a new type of service which their organizations can render to the membership. They realize that whereas in the early years there were but few agencies available to help them and that it was necessary for most of the leadership of organization, administration, and program making for their clubs to come from the members' own efforts, more recently many avenues of federal and state, public, semi-public, and private helps have developed, which offer highly trained technical leadership in matters of general and of specialized concern to farm women. Some of these agencies cover the general field of rural homemaking. Others serve the more specialized fields of recreation, health, library, civics, and the like.

Farm women are appreciating the valuable help of these experts and are looking to them for authentic information along their respective lines. Thus are farm women's organizations becoming clearing centers where groups of farm women learn direct from accepted authority the latest information regarding matters which the women themselves deem important.

In addition, farm women are recognizing that their organizations form avenues of expression for an important sector of public opinion, and they are earnestly endeavoring to help put public institutions on a plane of statesmanship and efficiency. They are utilizing their organizations to demand public expenditures for public wellbeing. They are asking of public officials statements as to their policies and platforms, and are demanding that pledges to the public be fulfilled. They are meeting in joint session with urban organizations of women to further common interests.

Farm women's organizations are fostering many types of public welfare work. Better school buildings, school equipment and better trained school teachers, as well as adequate living facilities for school teachers and better school lunches for teachers and pupils alike are being made the objects of their efforts. Improved Sunday school service, better roads and road signs, community recreation, better forms of public amusement, better

public health facilities, rest rooms for rural people, instruction in voting responsibilities and procedure, initiation or improvement of exhibits at community, county, and state fairs, community recreation, and recreational equipment have all been aided by rural women's organizations.

The sponsoring of rural recreation, dramatics and music have been largely developed during the past few years and it has brought much of mirth and joy to rural people during a period of economic depression. Formal education has always received the support of rural women's organizations. Especial emphasis has been laid on education for homemaking during the past few years, and home economics in its formal presentation in the classroom, as well as home demonstration work in its less formal presentation to farm women and girls in the farm home, has received the enthusiastic commendation and formal endorsement of all organizations of farm women as well as the farm organizations admitting both men and women.

Farm women's organizations have each year sensed more clearly their opportunity for assisting in promoting education. A new service on the part of some of these organizations is the provision of a loan fund which can be used by farm boys and girls for formal education which would be impossible without such aid. Farm women's organizations are also sponsoring social and educational activities designed to help farm boys and girls to better understand and appreciate rural life and to become efficient in activities connected with farming and farm homemaking. Farm women are recognizing the need of more spiritual guidance for the youth of the open country and are using their organizations to bring this matter to the attention of all rural parents. As a result the subject is discussed at meetings of rural women and Sunday schools long since closed are being reopened, children long absent from available Sunday schools are attending regularly and farm men and women are taking responsibility for the religious training and leadership of young people from farm homes.

Farm women are recognizing the place of their organizations in promoting legislation of a constructive nature. They are ana-

lyzing proposed legislation and are indorsing and promoting or are energetically opposing many measures before township, county, state and national bodies. They are endeavoring to analyze the needs of all people and particularly are they studying the needs of rural people which should be matters of public concern, and they are helping to shape legislation to that end. They obtain able leadership to sponsor desired legislation and use every effort to rally voters to its support.

X

NATIONAL AGRICULTURAL LEGISLATION, 1921-25

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The apparent prosperity of American agriculture at the close of the World War was the result of abnormal conditions, and a reaction, sooner or later, was practically certain. Early in 1920 the period of depression set in, an era of typical "hard times," unemployment, declining wages, declining prices, "tight" credit, and a general lack of business confidence. In the precipitous drop in prices that took place, agricultural products led the way. The farmer found himself in the embarrassing situation of receiving less and less for his output but having to pay proportionately more and more for everything he had to buy. (In May, 1919, the purchasing power of the farmer's products, measured by the relation of farm prices to wholesale prices of non-agricultural products on a 1909-13 base at 100, was 117 as compared with 77 in May, 1921.) But as his purchasing power declined his debts and the interest thereon remained at par and thus came to represent much more real value than they did at the time contracted. In addition to this, it became much more difficult to secure renewals. In the Northwest, 1919 was a drought year and this combined with the general depression to drive many farmers and financial institutions dependent on farmers into bankruptcy. It was apparent that not only the farming interests but the welfare of the nation as a whole was threatened.

The sixty-seventh Congress, which lasted from April, 1921, to March, 1923, devoted much of its time and attention to these

problems. A commission made up of members of both houses and known as the Joint Commission of Agricultural Inquiry, made an extended study of the agricultural situation and (with the aid of experts from various branches of the government service) prepared a painstaking and valuable report in which a program of legislation was suggested. Though the recommendations of this commission were not in all cases carried out, their report served as a textbook for agricultural legislation in that and the succeeding Congress. Some of the more important acts relating to agriculture passed by Congress since 1921 are here reviewed:

TARIFF ACTS OF 1921 AND 1922

The emergency tariff act was passed in 1921. The general deflation in agricultural prices continued, however, in the United States as well as in the rest of the world. The tariff act of 1922 made no revolutionary changes but followed very closely the policy of the emergency tariff. It should be noted that the schedule for agricultural products is the lowest included in the act and that only about a third of the classifications in this schedule are true farm products. The majority are manufactured products such as flours, canned and prepared fruits, etc.[1]

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT

One of the results of the agricultural developments of the last century was greatly to increase the capital requirements of the industry. Even before our entrance into the World War the government had recognized the increasing need and created the Federal Farm Loan System. When we joined the Allies one of their greatest demands was for food—and more food. In order to increase the food surplus of this country the farmer required more capital. Much credit was provided by national and private agencies and the farmer went heavily in debt in order to increase his production. After the war was ended the foreign market broke; soldiers returned to their farms; new sources of supply

[1] *Cf. Dictionary of Tariff Information,* Washington, D. C., United States Tariff Commission, 1924, p. 20.

were opened up; and the credit of many countries accustomed to purchasing some of our surplus was exhausted. Prices dropped, but the farmers' debts still remained at the level of greatest inflation. Many credit agencies attempted to call their loans and often the bankruptcy of both farmer and bank resulted. It was obvious that the financial system was inadequate to the farmers' needs and that at this time, particularly, additional credit was needed to tide over the country banks to a time of higher prices and greater prosperity and to enable the farmers to change their system of agriculture to meet the new needs of the time.

In 1921 and 1922 three things were done by Congress to improve the situation as to agricultural credit: it was made possible for the land banks to extend the field of their mortgage loans; farmers were assured fair representation on the Federal Reserve Board, and the powers of the War Finance Corporation were extended. The War Finance Corporation was not originally created for the special purposes of agriculture but merely "to provide credits for industries and enterprises in the United States necessary or contributory to the prosecution of the war." In so far as agriculture was recognized as being one of such industries it was included, but no further. In August, 1921, the powers of the corporation were specially extended to enable it to make loans "to any coöperative association of producers in the United States which may have made advances for agricultural purposes, including breeding, raising, fattening, and marketing of live stock." During the three years from August, 1921, to November, 1924, the corporation made loans under this act totalling $297,934,000 and approved other loans amounting to almost $480,000,000. These loans did an important work in tiding over the country banks and coöperative associations through the crisis.

The Agricultural Credits Act passed on March 4, 1923, though enacted under pressure of an agricultural crisis, met the long-felt demand for some form of "intermediate" credit and should certainly not be considered as primarily emergency legislation. In the past agricultural credit was placed in the simple classification of long-time or mortgage credit and short-time or personal credit.

There are many occasions when farmers require loans for intermediate periods, *i.e.*, for a term longer than the three to six months maturity granted by local banks, but less than the usual farm mortgage term of five years. Cattle growers especially desire such loans. To meet this demand it was the practice in the past to renew short time loans one or more times. This, however, was troublesome because it involved the inconvenience and expense of frequent renewals and made the loan liable to call at what were often embarrassing occasions for the farmer. Commercial banks would not furnish loans for intermediate periods because of their need of a higher percentage of comparatively liquid paper. In the Agricultural Credits Act the United States Government took it upon itself to furnish the means for providing such intermediate credit. Two systems were provided to furnish it; one, a system of national agricultural credit corporations, in which the capital was provided by private individuals, and the other, the intermediate credit bank system, the capital of which was supplied by the government.

The national agricultural credit corporations as authorized by this act were to be under the supervision of the Comptroller of the Currency. They could rediscount agricultural paper and make direct loans to individuals. Only one such corporation has been actually organized to date (November 1, 1925), but the prospects have improved since the law was amended, permitting these corporations to utilize the rediscount facilities of the Federal Intermediate Credit Banks, and the organization of a number of others is now under way.

The federal intermediate credit bank has virtually the same officers and directors as the federal land bank but it is wholly independent in that it has entirely separate funds and accounts and an operating staff of its own. The bank does not deal with the farmer directly but discounts the paper of companies dealing in agricultural loans. It may deal, however, with coöperative credit or marketing associations as well as with the agricultural credit corporations. Direct loans are made to coöperative marketing associations on the basis of warehouse receipts on staple products. Corn, cotton, wool, tobacco, peanuts, broom corn, beans,

alfalfa and red-top clover seed, hay, nuts, dried prunes, dried raisins, canned fruits and vegetables have been listed as satisfactory security for such loans. During 1924 it was possible to make loans at a comparatively low interest rate, ranging from 4½ to 5½ per cent. Coöperative marketing associations have made extensive use of this source of credit. Agricultural credit corporations and cattle-loan companies are also taking advantage of its facilities to an increasing extent. Any group of citizens may organize an agricultural credit corporation provided they have a paid-in capital of $10,000 and are organized under the local state law. The maximum amount of paper which can be discounted with the intermediate credit bank is ten times their unimpaired capital and surplus. The actual amount discounted, however, will vary with each individual corporation and rarely reaches the maximum. State and national banks have discounted only a small amount of paper with the intermediate credit bank as it has been comparatively easy to get credit from other agencies which do not limit the amount discounted or the interest rate charged.[2]

THE CAPPER-VOLSTEAD ACT, 1922

While a corporate organization is not adapted to the business of farming, it is adapted to the handling and marketing of many or all agricultural products. Generally it is only through farmers acting together that the advantages which accrue from large scale operations can be obtained by them. To secure these advantages coöperative corporations or associations of farmers have been formed in all sections of the country.

The question of the legal status of these organizations was one which soon arose. Although the number of instances in which farm organizations have been interfered with on the theory that they ran counter to such laws is few, there was uncertainty in regard to their legal status. The Clayton Act was passed in 1914 and provided that "nothing contained in the anti-trust laws shall be construed to forbid the existence and

[2] *Cf.* Article on farm credit in the *Yearbook of the United States Department of Agriculture,* 1924.

operation of labor, agricultural or horticultural organizations instituted for the purpose of mutual help and not having capital stock or conducted for profit." Those interested in farm organizations did not consider this provision sufficiently comprehensive and definite to remove all doubt in regard to the legal status of farm organizations. Besides, it only covered non-stock farm organizations. With a view to establishing the legality of farm organizations, whether stock or non-stock, under the anti-trust laws, those interested in coöperation sponsored a measure which was enacted by Congress in February, 1922, and which is known as the Capper-Volstead Act. It provides that "persons engaged in the production of agricultural products as farmers, planters, ranchmen, dairymen, nut or fruit growers may act together in associations, corporate or otherwise, with or without capital stock, in collectively processing, preparing for market, handling, and marketing in interstate and foreign commerce, such products of persons so engaged."

In order for associations to obtain the benefit of this statute they must be operated "for the mutual benefit of the members" and they must not pay dividends in excess of 8 per cent per annum, or else they must restrict their members to one vote regardless of their financial interest in the association. All associations desirous of coming under the statute must not handle in value more products for non-members than they handle for members. The Secretary of Agriculture is given supervisory power over all of the associations engaged in interstate commerce which come within the terms of the statute and if he has "reason to believe that any such association monopolizes or restrains trade in interstate or foreign commerce to such an extent that the price of any agricultural product is unduly enhanced by reason thereof, he shall serve upon such association a complaint stating his charge in that respect." Following a hearing, if the Secretary concludes that the charges of the complaint have been established, the Act provides that he shall issue an order "directing such association to cease and desist from monopolization or restraint of the trade." If the order is not obeyed it devolves upon the Department of Justice to enforce it in the courts.

THE PACKERS AND STOCKYARDS ACT, 1921

The producer of beef cattle, of mutton, and of hogs has always been at more or less of a disadvantage in marketing his product. This was especially true, if, as in the majority of cases, he raised his stock far from the market and had to entrust their sale to a more or less unknown "commission man." With a view to protecting such producers and increasing their confidence in the great livestock markets, Congress passed a law in August, 1921, known as the Packers and Stockyards Act. By it the Secretary of Agriculture is vested with regulatory authority over packers, stockyard owners, market agencies and dealers. Packers and commission men who do business in interstate commerce are prohibited from engaging in any practices which may be considered by the Secretary to be unfair, deceptive, or in restraint of trade. The owners of public stockyards must furnish services without discrimination and at reasonable rates. ("A stockyard is subject to the act if it is a place commonly known as a stockyard and conducted for compensation or profit as a public market, consisting of pens and enclosures for holding, selling, or shipment of livestock in interstate commerce, containing an area of 20,000 square feet or more.") A schedule of such rates must always be kept on file with the Secretary. All complaints in regard to rates or service should be sent to him. At present 76 stockyards are administered under this act, at 19 of which regular livestock market supervisors are located. In Washington the Secretary has at his service a staff of trained specialists and administrators in the Packers and Stockyards Administration. Besides ensuing fair practices in the public markets this act also furnishes an excellent opportunity for the study of livestock marketing, which will undoubtedly lead to a better understanding of the problems and needs of the business.

THE GRAIN FUTURES ACT, 1922

The marketing of grain presents, in many ways, problems similar to those in the marketing of live stock. In addition, there

are special problems growing out of the complicated dealings in futures and certain more or less questionable practices connected therewith. On August 24, 1921, an act was passed which prohibited "puts and calls" and similar transactions and gave authority to the Secretary of Agriculture to direct certain investigations into the practices of grain marketing. Other clauses gave the Secretary regulatory powers over grain exchanges. These last provisions were declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court because enacted under the taxing power of Congress. Therefore, that body passed the Grain Futures Act in 1922 under the interstate commerce power and this act, containing practically the same provisions as those previously declared unconstitutional, was sustained by the Supreme Court. The Secretary of Agriculture in administering the Grain Futures Act has studied the various factors which produce changes in the grain market and has sought to prevent the doing of those things prohibited by the act without unnecessarily interfering with the conduct of the grain exchanges. It is the belief that manipulation of the market can best be prevented by coöperation with the boards of trade in charge of the grain exchanges. Practical steps are being taken at the present time to bring about such coöperation.

THE COTTON STANDARDS ACT, 1923

The cotton crop of any normal season contains a wide range of spinning qualities, which though not readily distinguishable by the grower represent nevertheless a wide range of values. It is considered fundamental to any program for the improvement of marketing methods and practices that there should be some fixed and reliable means of identifying and describing these qualities. Until this was done there was no assurance of the comparability of quotations in various markets, and, furthermore, the grower was neither able to interpret and apply quotations nor to bargain intelligently. Moreover, without such information there was an element of uncertainty in the loan value of cotton warehouse receipts. The Warehouse Act of 1916, which under-

took to improve the quality of warehouse collateral, contemplated the use of fixed standards of classification.

Cotton grading began in Liverpool about 1800, the grades being determined until recently almost entirely by cotton dealers. Uniform grade names soon became traditional but the quality associated with the grades varied widely as between places and between producers and manufacturer. This resulted in business preferment among dealers who had established with each other their ideas of quality, and confusion and uncertainty among others. As each buyer would undertake to buy according to the system of classification in effect in the market in which he sold, there was always the necessity of translating prices and qualities in order to arrive at proper quotations. It became evident to merchants and brokers as well as to planters, to manufacturers and to bankers that uniform standards would be exceedingly desirable.

In 1909 the United States adopted the so-called "permissive standards," recommended but not required for use in cotton exchanges. They were adopted at New York and at New Orleans but never received common currency. In 1914 they were replaced by the Official Cotton Standards established under the Cotton Futures Act. Finally, the Cotton Standards Act of March 4, 1923, made the use of these official standards obligatory "in all spot cotton transactions in interstate and foreign commerce after August 1, 1923." In June of the same year the grade standards were slightly modified in conference with representatives of the European cotton exchanges, after which they were adopted under the name "Universal Standards" by all of the important exchanges abroad. In international trade the effect has been to simplify business and to remove many of the causes for disputes which previously existed, thereby to some extent reducing the cost of the service between producer and consumer.[3]

[3] *Cf.* A. W. Palmer, *The Commercial Classification of Cotton,* Department Circular 278 of the United States Department of Agriculture.

THE BUTTER STANDARD ACT, 1923

March 4, 1923, was a great day for national agricultural legislation. Besides the Agricultural Credits and the Cotton Standards Bill, the Butter Standard Bill and the Filled Milk Bill also became laws on that date. The Government had had conflicting rulings as to the definition of butter. The Bureau of Chemistry said that butter must contain 82½ per cent pure butter fat. It was found, however, that such a proportion of the butter analyzed by them was not up to this standard, that it was deemed inexpedient to attempt to enforce it. The Bureau of Internal Revenue was entrusted with the enforcement of the Adulterated Butter Act. This bureau issued a regulation that any butter which contained 16 per cent or more of water was adulterated,[4] and collected a tax on all such butter. The act of March 4, 1923, established an official standard which superseded both of them. It accepted a fat standard but required only 80 per cent instead of 82½ per cent. The advantage of one official standard over two conflicting ones is obvious. On the other hand, the act has certain unfortunate aspects. First, the new ruling applies only to butter carried in interstate or foreign commerce whereas the ruling of the Bureau of Internal Revenue reached all manufacturers of the product in the country. Again, most foreign countries have a 16 per cent water standard. Occasionally when butter contains very little salt it may have over 80 per cent fat and also more than 16 per cent water. Under such circumstances the butter is legal in the United States but not legal in countries where the 16 per cent water standard obtains. This, of course, is a serious difficulty when the United States exports butter to such nations. This factor has not seriously injured the industry because our butter export is not large.

THE FILLED MILK BILL, 1923

The other act of March 4, 1923, in which we are interested was the act "to prohibit the shipment of filled milk in interstate

[4] On May 26, 1924, the Supreme Court of the United States held that the regulation in question was unauthorized and void; Lynch v. Tilden Co., 265 U. S. 315.

and foreign commerce." The dairymen of the country were particularly interested in this legislation. Filled milk is made from evaporated skimmed milk, with coconut oil substituted for the butter fat. It looks, tastes, and smells the same as ordinary evaporated milk despite the difference in its composition. The manufacturer lived up to the letter of the law in some cases by refraining from the use of the word "milk" on the label, but the retailer often made no discrimination between the substitute and the pure evaporated milk product.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE BUREAU OF DAIRYING, 1924

On May 29, 1924, an act was passed creating the Bureau of Dairying in the United States Department of Agriculture. Very valuable work had been done up to that time in the division of dairying while it was part of the Bureau of Animal Industry. It was felt, however, that the national importance of dairying justified at this time, a separate bureau.

THE FEDERAL HIGHWAYS ACT, 1921

Good roads have always been of primary importance to the farmer, and in the last few years the increasing use of the automobile truck in marketing farm products has made them of even greater importance. Modern road improvement followed the automobile and has really been making progress for only about twenty years. In 1916 the federal government resumed its participation in road construction after a lapse of three-quarters of a century. In that year the Federal-Aid Road Act was passed and the Office of Road Inquiry, changed into the Bureau of Public Roads, was given the supervision of the construction of the federal-aid roads. In 1921 the Federal Highway Act was passed which authorized the Secretary of Agriculture to designate a great nation-wide system of federal-aid highways, limited in each state to seven per cent of the total mileage at the time of the passage of the act, and to be maintained by federal expenditure only if the state in which they were located refused to do so.

FREIGHT RATE INVESTIGATIONS, 1925

In many parts of the country the road haul, by horse or mule or auto truck, is only the beginning of a longer journey which agricultural products must take before reaching market. In such cases freight rates often eat up a large proportion of the returns. In 1920 the Interstate Commerce Commission allowed a freight rate increase which averaged about 30 per cent for the country as a whole. The farmers raised a storm of protest and the Commission of Agricultural Inquiry recommended a reduction. In 1922 the railroads voluntarily cut their rates on farm products about 10 per cent. This did not satisfy the agricultural interests and eventually Congress passed, on January 30, 1925, a resolution directing the Interstate Commerce Commission to investigate rates for farm products and "to effect with the least practicable delay such lawful changes in the freight structure of the country as will promote the freedom of movement by common carriers of the products of agriculture affected by [the] depression, including livestock, at the lowest possible lawful rates compatible with the maintenance of adequate transportation service." Two hearings have already been held in Chicago and others are to follow soon.

THE PURNELL ACT, 1925

Experiment stations were originally established with a view to production investigation only. No provision was made for work in farm management, marketing, home economics, or rural sociology. The Purnell Act gave these research projects a place in the work of the stations. The range of their services was extended to include the "conducting [of] investigations [in the] . . . manufacture, preparation, use, distribution, and marketing of agricultural products . . . and such economic and sociological investigations as have for their purpose the development and improvement of the rural home and rural life." To meet the new demands on the services of the stations additional appropriations were provided: $20,000 for each state for the first year, $30,000

for the second year, $40,000 for the third year, $50,000 for the fourth year, and $60,000 for the fifth year and each year thereafter.

A number of bills of more or less local interest have been, from time to time, enacted into law. Special relief measures have been passed to help drought-stricken farmers in the southwestern states, extensions of time allowed to settlers to pay instalments on land purchased from the Government and seed loans extended to grain growers in the Northwest.

XI

THE COÖPERATIVE MARKETING MOVEMENT

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This paper presents a concise appraisal of the coöperative marketing movement by discussing the extent of organization, the main types of associations, the main economic advantages and limitations, the social aspects, including the question of a philosophy of coöperation and the problems of social control.

THE EXTENT OF COÖPERATIVE MARKETING

Fairly extensive statistics on memberships of farmers' business organizations are now available from the division of agricultural coöperation of the United States Department of Agriculture. In a statement of September, 1923, on "Coöperation in the United States During the Present Decade," it was said: "It is estimated that there are now not less than 10,000 local coöperative organizations in the United States." Figures were given for 22 federations of local associations (a total of 1,482 local associations being included in these federations.) The average membership of these locals was estimated to be about 40, making a total membership of about 400,000. In the same statement there were said to be almost half a million members of cotton and tobacco associations in the South, organized in state or regional organizations and probably three hundred thousand members of other regional associations handing wheat, milk, fruits, eggs and other products.

In April, 1925, the division issued another preliminary report of the membership of farmers' business organizations as of January 1, 1925. Associations of all types and sizes were stated to aggregate 10,326, with 2,500,000 members. This was an increase of 284 per cent in membership over the figure for 1915, when the total membership of slightly over 5,000 organizations was 651,000. These figures are for buying and selling organizations, though probably at least nine-tenths are formed for selling. There are also obviously some duplications, since many farmers are members of more than one organization, though the extent of this duplication is not known. It is also unknown how many of those listed among the membership actually make continuous use of the organizations to which they belong. An editor of a prominent Middlewestern agricultural paper once told the writer that half of the members of a coöperative were usually active. A high official of the American Cotton Growers' Exchange—the federation of the state cotton associations of the South—stated at the American Institute of Coöperation at Philadelphia in July, 1925, that only half of the Southern farmers who signed contracts to deliver cotton had for various reasons ever delivered any. These testimonies are evidence that the "active membership" of our coöperative marketing associations is considerably less than total figures of the membership lists.

It also seems fair to state that during the years 1915 to 1923 there was a very rapid extension of coöperative marketing but that the years 1924 and 1925 have been times of readjustment. There have been some failures of prominent enterprises, a good many reorganizations, and many organizations have had great difficulty in holding the loyalty of their members.

TYPES OF COÖPERATIVE ORGANIZATIONS

Coöperative marketing in many parts of the country has often been carried on through small associations operating in one community. They may usually be called "community organizations," and are in many instances successful because they are deeply rooted in the social life of the community. They usu-

ally consist of men who know each other well. They are formed for the purpose of solving local problems—saving handling costs, eliminating buyers, local grading, etc. Frequently they handle the several products of the community. Sometimes they combine a certain amount of buying with selling. The manager is usually a farmer. Their success is often due to the social and spiritual cohesion of the members.

But the business advantages of local associations in most cases have been few, due to the fact that they handle only a small volume of products and are usually unable to apply the most efficient methods of distribution. Seldom have they brought about any considerable increase in the use of their product. Their managers are usually not trained marketers. Organization has often been on a loose, insecure basis and, though there are no accurate figures, there have been frequent failures among local coöperative associations. The chief weakness of local associations, however, is that when unfederated, they constantly compete with one another, are unable to make a united impact upon the market, and consequently render only a small service to their members. Therefore it has become an axiom in rural economic organization that a group of individuals working only in their own community, through their local association, cannot greatly better their position. This is in conformity with the whole trend of rural organization which seems to be toward providing definite links between various community organizations and county, district, state or national bodies. In economic organization centralization is considered especially necessary, however, for business efficiency and in order to avoid competition between local groups.

Two general methods for effective centralization have been proposed. As an illustration of a federation, which is the European and the original American scheme of centralization, let us consider briefly the structure of the California Fruit Growers' Exchange, which was formed in 1895 by local associations handling citrus fruit. The individual member is linked to the local by contract, the local having in turn a contract with the district exchange, and the district with the central

organization. The contract of this association happens to be for a term of years, but members are allowed any year to cancel, after giving due notice. The functions of the local association in this organization are to pick, assemble, grade and pack fruit. The district exchange further assembles, takes title, stores and ships the products. The central exchange advertises, studies markets, sells the product as agent, and routes it properly. The product in this case remains the property of the district exchange. Both the district and central exchange operate at their own costs. The district exchange is financed by stock purchased by the locals, the federation by stock purchased by the district exchanges. This plan has been widely copied and applied by most of the approximately twenty-five federations of local associations so far as possible or practicable, though most federations do not have the district exchange. It preserves considerable powers and autonomy for the local group. Its advocates feel that it allows for sufficient centralization and efficient grading, processing, packing, advertising and selling, etc., while at the same time it is built up slowly, with stable local groups as a foundation.

The regional association is a recent American adaptation designed to achieve quick results and to effect organization of large numbers of farmers in a wide area. As an illustration of this type, let us consider the structure of the Oklahoma Cotton Growers' Association, which was organized in 1921. In this association, the individual signs a contract with the central organization. The terms of this contract are such that the individual's important business relations are with the central office. The contract is for a period of seven years and is non-cancellable. In this regional association, the central office performs all the functions in the marketing process that are distributed among the local, district, and central associations in the federated type. Control of all the business operations is centralized in this office. Government of the Association is by a board of directors; one director is elected by the members in each "voting district." These voting districts are arranged in the region organized according to the amount of

the crop produced. The local associations, when organized, perform practically no services in the marketing process, and have no powers except to present petitions or give advice to the board of directors. They do, however, provide contact between directors or employed officers and the membership and build up mutual confidence; they are centers for discussion and education, assist in enforcing contracts, conduct social activities, and thus make for stability of organization. This method provides for highly centralized control of crop and credit facilities, and of grading and merchandising.

In general, the contrast between the two main types may be summarized as follows:

FEDERATIONS	REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS
(1) have been formed slowly;	(1) have been formed quickly;
(2) are the European and original American type;	(2) are a new American type;
(3) are less centralized and	(3) are highly centralized and
(4) fairly democratic;	(4) not democratic;
(5) are built upon existing local organizations;	(5) are formed for marketing purposes in "one big local";
(6) have contracts between a member and his local;	(6) have contracts between an individual and the central organization;
(7) have usually cancellable contracts;	(7) have long term non-cancellable contracts;
(8) use contracts as incidental bonds;	(8) use contracts as a first bond;
(9) rely on local opinion, group pressure, experience and non-legal forms of control.	(9) have relied more largely on legal control.

Within the past few years there have been a few attempts at organizing federations quickly. The Minnesota Potato Growers Exchange and the Association of Poultry Growers in the same state are both federations and have been organized in a comparatively short time. There have been and probably should be more experiments of this kind in order to see if the American desire for speed can be satisfied in the organization of a federation. Unsatisfactory results within some of the large centralized associations have made such experiments at the rapid organization of federations most desirable at this time.

Prof. O. B. Jesness of the University of Kentucky offers the following pertinent advice with regard to the adaptability or desirability of these two general types under consideration: "The decision as to whether the federated or the centralized plan should be adopted is deserving of more consideration than is involved in questions as to who does the organizing and the ease of organization. The commodity itself is entitled to the greatest consideration. California oranges present a situation where definite locals are highly desirable. Local pools are adapted to local variations in the fruit. Local receiving facilities take care of the physical handling of the fruit very satisfactorily. Place distribution is important in the case of oranges. Only limited control can be exercised over the time element in their sale. When we turn to burley tobacco, we are confronted with an entirely different set of marketing problems. The outlets are concentrated in the hands of a few buyers. There is no highly organized market comparable to that in the case of wheat, which the organization can follow. Large carry-overs from season to season are normal, not exceptional. Time distribution is a big factor in coöperative tobacco marketing, place distribution is of little importance. Under the circumstances, a large association appears essential for tobacco. Its holdings need to be administered as a unit. Pooling needs to be general by crop years because local pools or monthly pools are not feasible. While a federation is well suited to oranges, the centralized plan is the one for burley tobacco. Local coöperative creameries and cheese factories make highly suitable units in central sales organizations such as the Wisconsin Cheese Producers Federation and the Minnesota Coöperative Creameries Association. The Twin City Milk Producers Association, on the other hand, must handle the problem of marketing fluid milk in Minneapolis and St. Paul as a unit, and turns no milk marketing activities over to locals." [1]

[1] *Journal of Farm Economics*, July, 1925.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS AND LIMITATIONS

Mr. E. E. Miller, editor of the *Southern Agriculturist* has summed up the development of coöperative marketing as follows: "Coöperative marketing is being developed in the hope of lessening the too great cost of distribution; but coöperative marketing systems that really cut distribution costs cannot yet be said to have been established. They are only being developed; and the farmer has certainly not yet adjusted himself to the demands of coöperation." Theodore Macklin, professor of marketing at the Wisconsin College of Agriculture, has thus described the benefits of a well organized coöperative: "Coöperation gives coöperating farmers the net profits of marketing; reduces the cost of marketing so far as this may be done; improves old and creates new marketing services for its members; readjusts standards of production; gives farmers confidence in the marketing system because they own it and control its policies; develops leadership; has taught coöperators the commercial point of view." Professor Macklin comes to these conclusions after intensive study of coöperative marketing in all parts of the United States and other countries.

He points out, however, that the "net profit of marketing is the least important reason for coöperating. It amounts in the cheese business, one of the best available examples, to one cent for each dollar's worth of cheese sold." He also states that reduction of the cost of marketing is much more important, and that "coöperative cheese marketing has already reduced marketing costs by four cents on each dollar's worth of cheese sold. This suggests that the lowering of market costs through coöperation is four times as important as trying to get middleman's net profit. . . . Coöperative companies have not obtained this benefit quickly. It has been slow work."

One of the noteworthy things about the coöperative marketing movement is that we have very little accurate information as to how great a factor it has been in increasing prices, when these have increased after the association has functioned. Macklin says: "Taken together, the ordinary marketing profits,

the savings through lower operating costs, and the higher prices, obtained by rendering more pleasing and effective service, are the three proved sources of financial benefit through coöperation. They are the means of gaining the larger farm price which makes coöperation worth practising. In the highly-developed, older coöperative systems, money rewards of these three kinds have been received in greater or lesser degree. In some of the matured cases, perhaps as much as one-quarter of the sustained price paid farmers is directly the result of successful coöperation. That prices are greatly improved in these ways is positive. On the other hand, farm prices are not permanently doubled or trebled by coöperation. In fact, all who preach coöperation and leave the impression that it can quickly and permanently raise prices more than 25 per cent should be called upon for full information and proof as to how their assurances may be brought into practical reality. This suggestion is made not to belittle coöperation but rather to stimulate that degree of sober judgment which is required to make coöperative organizations grow and succeed." [2]

It is a very difficult matter in many cases to isolate the factor of coöperative association in influencing price levels. There are probably instances where prices in a certain crop area would have increased anyway after the recent depression, because of other factors, if a coöperative had not been organized, and yet the fact that prices increased after coöperative organization is used by promoters as an argument to justify the coöperative's existence. For example, the price of a certain grade of wool was 23½ cents per pound in August, 1921. It increased to 49½ cents in August, 1925. During that time there was a considerable development of coöperative wool marketing which undoubtedly affected the prices. During the same time there were also tariff adjustments, changes in fashions and in demand. Analysis of price levels is a very complex matter and speaking generally, long time trends of prices of some commodities handled to a large extent by coöperatives have probably as yet been very little affected by these organizations.

[2] *Annals* of January, 1925.

It must also be noted that coöperative marketing succeeds best when accompanied by other favorable economic factors. It is most effective as a technique when there are certain conditions and is not effective when those conditions are not present. High quality and standardized production has been a big factor making for the success of the Danish bacon and butter associations. Lack of standardized, high quality production has largely accounted for the lack of success of the Irish butter coöperatives, compared with those of Denmark. As long as several of the California coöperatives handling fruits could increase consumption in domestic markets by extensive advertising they prospered, but when production overtook the absorbing power of the markets, they immediately were in difficulties. A good marketing system will never be of much help to a poor farm manager. Guidance of production, control over credit facilities, economical purchasing, all help a sales organization. Up to this time the coöperative marketing movement has not been properly geared into a rounded program for agricultural development. We have been assured, for instance, that "farmers must rely upon coöperative marketing and upon nothing else." Some coöperative marketing leaders have in the past talked about nothing but coöperative marketing. We have been solemnly assured that farmers are exploited as sellers by our present distribution system. If that is true, then it must follow that farmers are at least to some extent also exploited as buyers, yet we have as yet no all-around program providing for coöperative credits, production, buying and selling.

THE SOCIAL ASPECTS OF COÖPERATIVE MARKETING

So far as relations with the rural community are concerned, our organizations in the United States for the most part do not assume responsibility for other than economic activities, in which respect they differ from rural coöperatives in Ireland, Russia, Germany, Finland and other countries. They are business organizations. A small proportion of local associations have carried on some social activities. Four regional associations—The New York Dairymen's League, the Burley Tobacco Growers Association and the associations among tobacco and

cotton growers of North Carolina have been carrying on very significant community work among the families of members. A small proportion of associations are thus attempting a direct contribution.

Our most important consideration is the indirect relationship which it is alleged does or will exist between highly developed coöperative marketing associations and the social—that is, non-economic—institutions. It has been said: Give the farmers more money through coöperative marketing and you will have more money for schools, recreation, religious organizations. For the past six years I have taken that claim of coöperative marketing leaders to sociologists, economists, educators, religious leaders and social workers and have found them divided in their views about the matter. Some accept the claim uncritically but a majority of those with whom I have talked are not inclined to regard the claim with much seriousness. The main arguments against it have been given to me as follows: "We do not yet know much about the relations of one rural institution to another." "The whole matter is just a claim or wishful thinking. We have no documents, no studies to show us that coöperative marketing has resulted in a higher standard of living even in the highly developed sections of California." "Wise consumption has not as yet been taught and how can we know whether farmers, if they have a higher net income, really use it to better their living standards." "High incomes have usually gone into increased capitalization of land values rather than into bettering living standards. We need social control over land values as well as highly developed coöperative marketing."

The whole matter has been summarized by M. L. Wilson in a paper on "Farmers' Incomes and Standards of Living from the Economic Viewpoint," read before the rural sociologists and economists at their meeting in Chicago in December, 1924: "To what extent do farmers, as a class, benefit from higher incomes, as we have more or less assumed? This is the crux of the whole matter under discussion. Doctor Henry C. Taylor answers this question by saying that it all depends on how the

income is used. As a matter of fact, there are only three possible ways it can be used. (1) Increased income can be put back into the farm business, into better instruments and methods of production, and more efficient marketing. But if in so doing the farmer, in his reaction to price stimulus, increases the supply in relation to demand—thus reducing the price to the consumer—the entire benefits will pass over to the consumer and at the end of the cycle the farmer will find himself as bad off as when he started. (2) It can be used in a competitive scramble for land, thus bidding up the price and capitalizing future land income to such a point that those farmers who purchase land under such conditions, in order to keep going, must reduce their standard of living to a low level. (3) It can be used to maintain higher standards of living." [3]

Thus I should say we are forced to conclude that in view of the evident limitations of coöperative marketing alone as a technique for increasing incomes, leaders of rural social life should not place much dependence upon extravagant claims as to what coöperative marketing will do for social development. It seems evident to me, however, that there are great possibilities in the teaching of wise consumption and in the development of ideas among rural people as to what a really high standard of living is or as to what a satisfying life on the land is, so that when increased incomes are achieved through economic techniques they can be translated into social enrichment.

A further fact that needs to be understood in appraising coöperative marketing in the United States is the wide divergence between the philosophy held by a large majority of the leaders of the farmers' associations and that which characterized the historic movement of consumers' coöperation. The farmers propose no such a widespread reorganization of capitalism as is contemplated in the elaborate scheme of consumers' coöperation. The coöperative marketing movement has offered a method of dealing with certain distribution problems; it has not proposed an extended plan for the social control of wealth. The leaders of the marketing movement have thus won a degree of

[3] *Journal of Farm Economics*, July, 1925.

approval among conservative financiers which has not been accorded the protagonists of consumers' coöperation in this country.

Managers of coöperative marketing enterprises are forever up against the problem of maintaining the goodwill of their members. The original American and the European method of maintaining control was through the federation idea—of relying upon education, years of experience, community pressure and the development of social ethics—plus a legal contract—to hold the group together. With the development of the regional idea, come new ideas of social control. It was alleged by the organizers of the regional associations that the federation plan was too slow; that one way to achieve centralization was to have a long-term non-cancellable contract rather than the one-year or cancellable contract which has distinguished the federation, but after operating a few years many of these regional associations have had to introduce other than business contacts between members and management and to rely on other ways of developing loyalty. There have been waves of contract breaking because of disloyalty. Members have lacked information about their association and have simply ignored their contracts. Concerted propaganda by business interests has aroused suspicions and dissatisfaction. Crop mortgages have prevented the delivery of much cotton and tobacco in the South. They were perhaps the chief factor influencing the fifty per cent of the members of Southern cotton associations who failed to deliver any cotton on their contracts. It is acknowledged pretty universally that legal control when largely relied upon to hold farmers together is a failure; that non-legal forms of control are more important and must be mainly relied upon for organization stability.

XII

FARM CREDIT AND FARM TAXATION

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THE DEMAND FOR MORE CAPITAL AND THE AGENCIES SUPPLYING IT

Developments in agriculture in the last decade have created a greater demand for capital to finance the individual farm unit. Rising land values, the wider use of improved farm machinery, higher labor costs, etc., all have tended to increase the need of the farmer for larger amounts of both fixed and working capital. As the credit requirements of farmers increased, it became apparent that the existing financial agencies were not in a position adequately to meet the legitimate needs of the industry.

The establishment of the Federal Land Bank System in 1914 was the first step in attempting to reach a solution of the problem. Based largely on the principles found at work in European credit institutions, it mobilized the credit of the country and provided facilities for long-term farm mortgage loans on the amortization plan. This system offered a solution for only a part of the credit difficulty, however, inasmuch as the farmer was still handicapped in securing proper accommodation for production and marketing credit. This handicap was particularly in evidence in the readjustment period following the World War, when country banks were unable to cope with the situation as a result of their inability to liquidate farm paper.

In an effort to lessen the credit strain in the agricultural regions, Congress adopted an emergency measure, whereby new

life was given to the War Finance Corporation, an organization born out of the wartime need for financing our exports. This agency, loaning its funds to coöperative marketing associations, livestock loan companies, and banking institutions, advanced a total of $287,739,668.06 for agricultural purposes. In addition, a considerable sum was advanced on agricultural products in export trade.

The extent to which the War Finance Corporation was called upon to assist country banks in carrying their agricultural paper demonstrated that there was no adequate provision for handling on a stable basis certain types of production and marketing credit. As a result, there arose a demand for a permanent agency that could supply the farmer with an intermediate term of credit, that is, loans maturing within six months to three years. In an effort to meet this demand, Congress passed the agricultural credits act of 1923, which provided for Federal Intermediate Credit Banks to be established in each of the twelve Federal Land Bank Districts. In the meantime, also, certain of the states, notably South Dakota, North Dakota and Minnesota, had set up machinery to provide mortgage credit to farmers.

That the new credit agencies have assumed an important rôle in meeting agricultural credit needs is evidenced by the volume of loans granted to farmers. The Federal Land Banks, from their organization to September 30, 1925, had made 370,876 loans for a total amount of $1,139,627,799, and the Joint Stock Land Banks, which are privately operated stock organizations working under practically the same regulations as the Federal Land Banks, had made 78,293 loans for a total amount of $592,010,240 during the same period. The Federal Land Banks are now loaning their funds to farmers at a rate varying from 5 to 5½ per cent, exclusive of the amortization payments. The rate charged by Joint Stock Land Banks varies from 5½ to 6 per cent.

The Federal Intermediate Credit Banks, which have been in operation only since 1923, carried loans in the following amounts on September 26, 1925:

Rediscounts from agricultural credit corporations..	$20,466,750.20
Rediscounts from livestock loan companies	10,100,783.67
Rediscounts from banking institutions	618,665.18
Direct loans to coöperative marketing organizations	31,649,500.25

Loans made directly to marketing organizations through Intermediate Credit Banks are now being granted at a rate of 4½ to 5 per cent, while rediscounts submitted by agricultural credit corporations, livestock loan companies, and banking institutions have been accepted on a basis of 5 to 5½ per cent.

Country banks, however, remain the main source of credit for the American farmer. Based on a credit survey conducted by the Department of Agriculture in 1924, it is estimated that on December 31, 1923, banks had advanced loans to farmers in the amount of $4,331,924,000. Of this sum, $2,943,818,000 was advanced on personal and collateral security, and $1,388,-106,000 on real estate security. The average interest on personal and collateral loans, for the country as a whole, was found to be 7.7 per cent, and the prevailing interest rate on farm mortgage loans held by banks, 6.9 per cent.

Another important source of credit for the farmer is the life insurance companies, from which have been advanced over $1,000,000,000 on farm lands. Figures based on the reports of 41 companies, having 82 per cent of the admitted assets of all life insurance companies, give the amount invested in farm mortgages on August 31, 1925, as $1,510,000,000.

Much progress, in short, has been made in the last decade in improving the credit position of the farmer. There are many phases of the problem which are not entirely satisfactory, however, and there are many areas where farmers are handicapped in meeting their financial requirements. This is particularly true in the South where merchant credit and high interest rates still persist, and tenants and small operators find the cost of short-time loans very high. Many sections of the range country and other areas where the resources of the local banks are not adequate are also in need of improved loan facilities.

TAXATION PROBLEMS

In any discussion of the farmer's economic position in the post-war period, the problem of his tax burden must assume importance. With the rapid decline in the price of farm products, the farmer found his income seriously impaired and in many instances wiped out entirely. In the face of this loss of income, he was in most cases confronted with a large increase in taxes. Having no relationship to his receipts, being a flat charge upon his earnings, these taxes have been a heavy burden.

The increased tax burden has resulted in part from a change in the level of prices, but it is also a result of the expanded program of highway, educational and social service activities. This expansion and expenditure has been financed largely through the general property tax levied by state and local governments. Inasmuch as the great bulk of farm taxes are property taxes, this increase is of direct concern to the farmer. It is estimated that farm property taxes have mounted from $344,000,000 in 1914 to $845,000,000 in 1923, an increase of 146 per cent in ten years. Taxes on farm lands are estimated to have averaged 69 cents per acre for the entire country in 1923. New Jersey farms were taxed at an average rate of $2.22 per acre in that year; the average for Indiana was $1.60 per acre; Michigan, $1.58; and for Iowa, $1.49.

The problem of easing the farmer's tax burden is one that presents a great many difficulties. In many instances, it will be almost impossible for him to lighten the burden where he is already committed to bonded indebtedness which will be a fixed charge on his income for years to come. The extent to which governmental units have thus mortgaged their future incomes has assumed considerable proportion, as the following figures will disclose:

TOTAL NET DEBT, PERCENT OF INCREASE, 1912-22[1]

States	170.4
Counties	242.6
Other Civil Divisions[2]	709.9

[1] *Financial Statistics of States*, 1923—U. S. Census Bureau.
[2] Not including incorporated places, which increased 63.0%.

The increase for "Other Civil Divisions" is particularly significant because it represents the increase of the small civil units, such as township and school districts with which the farmer is most directly concerned. In such instances where the local debt has reached high proportions, the farmer's possibility of relief is practically limited to the prevention of unwise commitments in the future.

A phase of the problem, however, which might be given careful consideration by the farmer in adjusting his taxation difficulties is that of a more equitable distribution of the tax burden. The last few years have witnessed a greatly expanded program of expenditure for highways and education, which, though of considerable local importance, are becoming more and more a state-wide development. The expenditures for public schools, public roads and many other functions now performed by the local civil governments are really of more importance outside the local districts than our methods of financing them would indicate, and it would seem to be more equitable that a portion of this cost should be borne by the central government. The tendency of state governments to lay down minimum requirements in various activities, as, for example, education, frequently results in unjust tax distribution. While entirely fair and just to a large part of the state, there are many areas of sparse population and little development where maintenance of these requirements entails a severe burden. As many of these regulations are enacted with the welfare of the state as a whole in mind, it would seem only just and fair that their financing should be distributed in an equitable manner over the whole state.

It is possible that in many localities there will be relief for the individual farmer through a careful reconsideration of assessment methods. With many thousand assessors making assessments within their individual taxing units, it is natural that inequities are found. Inasmuch as many of these injustices remain undetected in spite of the most conscientious effort of reviewing boards to rectify them, it becomes apparent that the problem must be approached from the angle of securing more

uniform returns in the original assessments. To achieve this, it has been suggested that the state tax commissions and others charged with the responsibility of securing fair assessments be given a greater degree of control over the personnel employed and the methods used in making the original assessments. At present, boards of review are usually provided for adjusting differences which occur between units of property within the same class and taxpayers have the privilege of appearing before these bodies. A more general usage of this right would bring some degree of relief in individual cases.

Because of the rapid decline which has taken place in farm land values in many states rural real estate is being over-assessed. The farmers in Iowa, for example, gathered data as to the sales values of city and farm property, which showed that the latter was greatly over-assessed. They presented the results of their survey to the State Board of Equalization and secured a reduction in farm land assessments of $292,115,845, and the valuation of livestock was cut $59,574,931 below the 1923 figure. Somewhat similar results are being achieved in other states as well.

Property listed for general property taxation is supposed to be assessed at its full sales or cash value, or at some specified percentage of that value. However, there are great differences in the returns from equal investments in different classes of property, and it is certain that a tax which is levied uniformly on capital values will be far from a uniform tax on the earning power of the respective classes of property. Farm property is especially subject to a high tax in proportion to its producing capacity, inasmuch as its average rate of return is generally quite low. In certain states tax officials take into consideration the earning power of public utilities and railroads in arriving at a fair valuation for assessment. A more general consideration of this principle in assessing farm property would result in more equitable taxation.

However, it is logical to expect that farm taxation will probably remain chiefly a local problem under any system of taxation which may be adopted. The bulk of expenditure is for

local purposes, and it will be necessary for the individual community to decide just what it can afford in the way of education, road facilities, and other local public services. At the same time, there is no doubt room for economy through reorganization of local governmental machinery, improved methods of purchasing, budget control, etc. The successful methods of economically managed units could be studied to advantage and applied to fit the needs of each local governmental organization. The policy of economy in governmental activities of local taxing units should recommend itself to all farmers, and especially to those living in the more agricultural states, where the small proportion of non-agricultural wealth will make it certain that the farmers will pay the bulk of all taxes levied.

XIII

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION, PRICES AND INCOME 1919-1925 [1]

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Outstanding among recent trends in the agricultural situation in the United States is the slow but gradual improvement from the post-war depression of 1921-22. A substantial recovery in the economic position of the average American farmer has been accomplished during the past three years largely as a result of the considerable recovery in prices of farm products. The progress has been toward a more equitable relation between the prices of farm products and the general price level, and, particularly, between the prices received by farmers and those of the goods farmers buy. The improvement in prices and income, however, has not been uniform throughout the agricultural regions. First, after the drastic decline in commodity values in 1920-21, sheep and wool prices recovered. Cotton producers were the next to experience recovery, in 1922-23. In 1924, wheat and corn prices rose from their prolonged period of depression and, during 1925, hog and cattle values made substantial gains. The dairy and poultry producers did not suffer such drastic declines in the value of their products and have consequently had a less rapid rise in income.

The net effect of the successive rises in farm prices has been to produce a marked change in income from agricultural

[1] All data used here, unless otherwise indicated, are taken from (1) *Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture*, 1924, (2) Supplement to *The Agricultural Situation*, June, 1925, and later issues, and (3) Supplement to *Crops and Markets*, July, 1925.

production. In the following table are shown the effects of the price depression on both gross and net income from agricultural production. Gross income declined from nearly 16 billion dollars in 1919-20 to 9 billion in 1921-22. Since then, over a period of four years, it has returned to 12 billion dollars, or an increase of 3 billion compared with the preceding drop of 7 billion. Net income declined nearly 5 billion and, since 1921-22, increased approximately 2 billion.

INCOME FROM AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

YEAR	GROSS INCOME	NET INCOME [1]
	1,000,000 dollars	1,000,000 dollars
1919-20	15,719	8,181
1920-21	12,668	4,642
1921-22	9,214	3,499
1922-23	10,366	4,518
1923-24	11,288	4,925
1924-25	12,136	5,650

[1] Available for the investment, management and labor of 6,448,000 farmers and their families.

It is the purpose of this paper to review the recent changes both in production and in price of the major farm products which are responsible for this improvement in the farmer's income; to indicate the effect of the improvement on the relation of prices received by farmers to prices paid for their purchases, and on the average reward per farmer for his labor, the acreage devoted to the leading crops does, however, indicate some of the factors in the immediate outlook for agricultural prices and income.

Agriculture will here be dealt with largely on a national basis. The relative position of the several distinct agricultural sections, which in a more detailed discussion would require special treatment, will merely be indicated through reference to the major farm products as regards production, prices, and income derived. Furthermore, this statement is limited to the outstanding changes in production, prices, and income, since

it is the recent changes in these which account for the partial emergence of agriculture from the effects of a prolonged depression. Numerous other factors there have been, among them more economical production, better farm management practices, coöperative marketing, better credit facilities, a high state of industrial activity, employment and wages, and the recovery in European buying power, but from a national viewpoint the story of the present agricultural situation can be simply told in terms of gross and net income derived from the production and sale of farm products, and the standard of living for which that net income will provide.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION SINCE 1919

The extent of the recovery in agricultural prices and income may be best understood from a review of the chief factors that have contributed toward that improvement and, inasmuch as income arises from the production and sale of farm products, we will consider first the readjustment that agriculture as a whole has made (a) in the acreage planted in crops, (b) in the number of livestock retained on farms for productive purposes, and (c) in the annual physical output of crops and live-

TABLE I

CROP ACREAGES IN THE UNITED STATES

Year	Wheat[1]	Corn	Oats	Rye	Cotton	P'tatoes	Hay	Total (19 crops)
	Million acres	Million acres	Million acres	Million acres	Million acres	Million acres	Million acres	Million acres
Average 1909-13	52	104	37	2.2	34	3.7	67	301[3]
1919	77	97	40	6.3	34	3.5	74	352
1920	66	102	42	4.4	36	3.7	74	345
1921	66	104	45	4.5	31	3.9	74	346
1922	68	103	41	6.7	33	4.3	77	348
1923	66	104	41	5.2	37	3.8	75	349
1924[2]	58	105	42	4.2	41	3.7	76	349
1925[3]	64	107	44	4.2	44	3.5	75	

[1] Acreage sown. [2] Year 1909. [3] Preliminary estimates.

stock. The total acreage in crops has remained practically constant during the past six years, indicating that the extent of farm lands devoted to crop production has not been affected materially by the prolonged depression. An examination of the acreages devoted to the leading crops does, however, indicate that a considerable adjustment has been accomplished in acreage devoted to wheat, particularly in the spring wheat areas. In 1924, the total wheat area seeded was reduced by 8 million acres as a result of the very low prices in 1923. Although between 1920 and 1923, inclusive, there was very little change in the wheat area, individual farmers made adjustments in crop enterprises in favor of crops not suffering from surplus production. In the spring wheat areas, a campaign urging farmers to diversify has resulted in the planting of more rye and flax and less wheat. In the winter wheat states larger areas were sown in wheat in 1921 and 1922 in spite of depressed prices. In 1923 and particularly in 1924, the low prices finally led to a considerable reduction in winter wheat seeding. The areas devoted to feed crops, corn, oats and hay, have been maintained rather constantly at 1919 and 1920 levels in face of ruinously low prices. Cotton, also, with the exception of 1921 and 1922, has been planted more extensively than during the two years before the price depression.

The fact that there has been no important reduction in acreage except in the wheat belt is of course no indication of the extent to which the individual farmers have shifted their enterprises from the less to the more profitable crops, or have entered upon diversified farming. A reduction in crop acreage by one farmer may be accompanied by the inclusion of that crop in the program of another farmer, so that the maintenance of the war-time acreages of corn, oats and hay may be indicative of the need of these feed crops by farmers who have diversified by including livestock and poultry in their programs.

That farmers have to some extent in the past six years engaged in diversification as a means of increasing their incomes can be deduced from the following data on the number of animals on farms:

TABLE II

NUMBER OF ANIMALS ON FARMS JANUARY 1

Year	Beef cattle	Dairy cows	Sheep	Hogs	Poultry
	Millions	Millions	Millions	Millions	Millions
Average 1909-13	40.7	20.9	53.2	60.9	
1919	45.1	23.5	48.9	74.6	
1920	43.4	23.7	39.0	59.3	373
1921	42.0	23.6	37.5	56.1	371
1922	42.0	24.1	36.2	58.3	423
1923	42.8	24.4	37.2	68.4	440
1924[1]	41.7	24.8	38.3	66.1	488
1925[1]	39.6	25.3	39.1	54.2	443

[1] Preliminary estimates.

The low prices of beef cattle that have prevailed since the beginning of the depression are largely responsible for the decrease in their number from 43.4 million in 1920 to 39.6 million in 1925. During the same period there has been an increase of 1.6 million in the number of dairy cows and 70 million head of poultry. Since January, 1922, there has also been an increase of nearly 3 million sheep on farms. These increases in the numbers of dairy cows, sheep and poultry are evidences of diversification in farm enterprises brought about by the relatively high prices of dairy and poultry products, lambs and wool, and low prices of grains, beef cattle and hogs. The explanation of the increase in the number of hogs from 56.1 million in 1921 to 68.4 million in 1923, and 66.1 million in 1924, is to be found not in profitable hog prices but in cheap corn due to large corn crops in 1921, 1922, and 1923, more than 80 per cent of which must be disposed of by feeding to livestock. With a short crop and high prices of corn in 1924, the number of hogs on farms January 1, 1925, was reduced nearly 12 million.

The deliberate adjustments in crop acreages have naturally affected the volume of crop production. However, upon ex-

amination it will be found that in the main the yearly crop output is controlled by the uncertain dispensations of nature. In some cases deliberate reduction from war-time acreages has been offset by unexpectedly high yields; in others, increases in acreages have been accompanied by disappointingly low yields. In general, it may be said that, from the beginning of the depression, grain and feed crops have been large and have helped to keep grain and feed prices relatively low. The annual production of the major crops is shown in the table below.

TABLE III

CROP PRODUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES

Year	Wheat	Corn	Oats	Rye	Cotton	P'tatoes	Hay	Index of production of 10 crops
	Million bushels	Million bushels	Million bushels	Million bushels	Million bales	Million bushels	Million tons	Per c'nt
Average 1909-13	690	2,712	1,143	36	13.0	358	82	100
1919	970	2,811	1,184	75	11.4	323	105	110
1920	833	3,209	1,496	60	13.4	403	105	120
1921	815	3,069	1,078	62	8.0	362	98	103
1922	868	2,906	1,216	103	9.8	453	112	113
1923	797	3,053	1,306	63	10.1	416	107	113
1924	873	2,436	1,542	63	13.6	455	112	117
1925 [1].....	697	3,013	1,470	52	15.4	347	98	109

[1] Preliminary estimate, November 9.

Wheat production, in spite of reduced acreage, has remained well above the pre-war average of 690 million bushels. As a result of low wheat prices in 1922 and 1923, wheat acreage sown in 1923 was reduced to 58 million, the lowest since 1919. An unusually high yield of 16.1 bushels per acre produced a crop of 873 million bushels in 1924. However, acreage was increased to 64 million but the outturn of the crop is officially estimated at 697 million bushels. Fortunately, in 1924, a shortage in the world wheat crop produced a rise in wheat prices

and American farmers were able to realize satisfactory returns for a large crop.

The corn crop during the past six years has been more definitely subject to variations in yields than to acreage. Since 1920, farmers have planted a fairly uniform acreage, ranging from 102 million acres in 1920 to 105 million in 1924, and 107 in 1925, but yields have been above average with the result that all of the post-war crops, except in 1924, have been large and have affected corn prices adversely up to the fall of 1924.

Similarly with oats production, low yields in 1920 and 1921 resulted in crops close to the pre-war average of somewhat over one billion bushels, although the acreages in these two years were 42 and 45 million, respectively, compared with 37 million acres in 1909-1913. The oat crops of 1923, 1924 and 1925 have been large, although acreage has changed but little. As in the case of wheat, oats prices, since 1921, have been depressed by large supplies.

The production of hay has also been maintained at a high level, exceeding both war-time and pre-war averages, this in view of the decreasing number of horses on farms. Prices have consequently remained close to pre-war levels during the past four years.

In the case of cotton, on the other hand, short crops in 1921 and 1922, due to low yields per acre more than to a reduction in acreage, were largely responsible for the quick recovery in cotton prices. Since 1921, acreage has been gradually expanded but not until 1924 and 1925 have large crops been picked. A 13 million bale crop reduced cotton prices from an average of 29 to 23 cents per pound, and the enormous 1925 crop, estimated at more than 15 million bales, has further depressed the price below 20 cents.

The trends in the production of animals and animal products since the beginning of the price depression reveal as outstanding the fact that the large feed crops of 1921, 1922 and 1923 produced large numbers of hogs and cattle which, in turn, retarded the recovery of hog and cattle prices. These trends are adequately summarized in the following table on animals

slaughtered under federal inspection, which constitute about 75 per cent of the total number annually marketed.

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF MEAT ANIMALS SLAUGHTERED UNDER FEDERAL INSPECTION

Year	Cattle and calves	Sheep	Hogs
	Millions	Millions	Millions
Average 1909-13	9.6	12.8	32.1
1918-19	14.9	11.3	44.4
1919-20	13.9	12.3	39.0
1920-21	12.1	12.5	37.7
1921-22	11.8	12.0	39.4
1922-23	13.4	11.4	48.6
1923-24	13.9	11.5	54.4
1924-25	14.8	12.2	48.5

The plentiful supply of feed crops coincides with the upward trend in cattle and hog production which began immediately after the price decline of 1920-21. The increased marketing of these meat animals effectively postponed the recovery of their prices until 1925, when the supply began to diminish as a result of a short corn crop in 1924.

The sheep industry fared differently. Following the price depression, sheep herds were liquidated and prices of lambs and wool responded immediately. Since 1922, they have remained relatively well above other farm products.

In dairy and poultry production the post-war trend has been steadily upward, as shown by the number of milk cows and poultry on farms. In 1920, reports from factories indicated a production of butter of 864 million pounds, increasing annually by nearly 100 million pounds until in 1923 the amount reported manufactured reached 1,252 million pounds and in 1924 1,356 million pounds.

The depressing effect that larger supplies have had on prices of other commodities, already noted, did not show itself in the case of dairy and poultry production until the fall of 1924. Ever since the quick recovery from the depression among the

industrial centers, in 1922, the active state of employment at nearly war-time wages has permitted larger marketings of butter and eggs to be absorbed without depressing prices.

THE PRICE READJUSTMENT

These different production trends have affected the prices of the several groups of products considered. We find that prices of all groups of farm products declined with the general collapse of values in 1920-21. The depressing effect of heavy marketings of hogs and cattle during 1922, 1923 and 1924 is seen in the relatively low position of the meat animal index. The decreased shipment of hogs and cattle to market toward the end of 1924 is responsible for the rise in the index since the middle of that year. Similarly, the effect of large surpluses on grain prices is reflected in the relatively low index of grain prices to the end of 1924. The short corn crop of 1924 and the world shortage of bread grains in the same year caused the rise in the grain price index during the last half of 1924. The relatively high index of cotton and cotton seed prices is almost entirely attributable to the cumulative effects of the short crops of 1921 and 1922 reinforced by a definite demand for American cotton from both domestic and European textile manufacturers. The downturn in the cotton index in 1924 and 1925 reflects the large crops of those years. On the other hand, as against these wide price movements, there is to be observed the rather even course of dairy and poultry prices, except for seasonal variations.

For agriculture as a whole, the prices of the several groups of products making a total of 30, have been combined into one index of farm prices, that is, prices paid to farmers at their local shipping points. The disparity between the prices received by farmers and the prices paid by them, which has existed for more than five years, is clearly evident. The facts to be noted particularly are the quick recovery in non-agricultural prices during 1922, their rather stable and horizontal movement since then, and the gradual upward movement in the index of prices received by farmers from 110 in 1921 to approximately 145 in 1925.

THE PURCHASING POWER OF THE FARMER'S DOLLAR AND OF HIS PRODUCTS

The significance of the movement of farm prices toward the level of non-agricultural prices lies in the fact that the purchasing power of a unit of the farmer's product in exchange for non-agricultural products has greatly improved. In 1919, when prices of non-agricultural commodities reached 250, or 150 per cent above the pre-war level, farmers could buy with one dollar only 40 per cent of the amount purchased before the war. During 1921, when non-agricultural prices fell to 160, one dollar bought about 57 per cent of what it bought before the war. Since then there has been only a slight change in the level of industrial prices, consequently the purchasing power of the dollar in terms of non-agricultural goods has risen only to 61 per cent in 1925.

These low values of the farmer's dollar have, however, been accompanied by rising prices received by farmers per unit. Thus, when in 1921 the purchasing power of the farmer's *dollar* was only about 60 per cent of its pre-war buying power, the index of prices received by farmers, which averaged 116, indicated that an average unit of farm products sold for $1.16 compared with $1 during 1910-1914. The purchasing power of a *unit* of the farmer's goods, therefore, was then equivalent to that of 70 cents before the war ($1.16 $\times$ .60 = .70). The real significance of the rise in prices of farm products from 116 in 1921 to 145 in 1925 is found not in the mere rise of 29 points, but in the fact that the purchasing power of a unit of the farmer's product, relative to 100 before the war, has risen from 69 per cent in the severest year of the depression to 89 per cent during 1925. This measures the extent of the improvement in the economic position of agriculture in terms of the adjustment in the disparity between agricultural and non-agricultural prices. A decrease in the present spread of 11 per cent between these two groups of prices is yet to be accomplished (either by an increase in farm prices or a decine in the other) before the pre-war relationship between them will be restored.

INCOME FROM AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

The recovery in farm prices to a point only 11 per cent below other prices should not be taken as the only measure of the advance made by agriculture from the depths of the depression. The movement of prices is significant only in its effect on income. In the following pages we will examine agricultural income, as determined by the changes in production and prices received by farmers, and prices of goods bought by them. Income from farm production may be considered first from the point of view of agriculture as a whole. Here we would be concerned largely with the net income to all owners of all capital invested in the industry after paying all costs of production and wages to those actively engaged in farming. It needs secondly to be considered from the point of view of the actual farm operators, both owners and tenants, as distinguished from the non-farmer owners of farm property or other capital used in agriculture. In this view we are concerned with the payments made by farm operators to non-farmers for rent on rented farms and interest on borrowed capital. The balance, after paying these obligations, is the reward for the labor, management and capital of the farm operators themselves.

The gross income for the industry as a whole for the past six years has already been indicated. In the following table the contributions made to that gross income by the five major groups of farm products are shown. Before considering the distribution of income between the labor and management devoted to agriculture on the one hand and the capital employed on the other, it may be well to point out the relation that these values, by groups of commodities, bear to the recent changes in production and prices, already discussed.

The failure in the cotton crop in 1921 and the precipitate drop in price reduced the gross income from cotton and cottonseed from 2.27 billion dollars in 1919 to .76 billion. The recovery in price and another short crop in 1922 gave the cotton growers an increase of nearly 500 million dollars in income. The progressively larger 1923 and 1924 crops have returned

TABLE V

GROSS INCOME FROM AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION—VALUE OF PRODUCTS CONSUMED AND SOLD

Year July 1-June 30	Grains	Meat animals	Fruits and vegetables	Cotton and cotton seed	Dairy and poultry products	All farm products
	Million dollars	Million dollars	Million dollars	Million dollars	Million dollars	Million dollars
1919-20	3,005	3,346	1,747	2,271	3,598	15,719
1920-21	2,246	2,328	1,705	1,272	3,502	12,668
1921-22	1,266	1,932	1,379	760	2,877	9,214
1922-23	1,393	2,180	1,410	1,251	2,957	10,366
1923-24	1,393	2,167	1,526	1,608	3,315	11,288
1924-25	1,934	2,621	1,370	1,690	3,284	12,136

an income of about 1.6 billion dollars. In the case of the livestock producers of the corn belt and the cattle ranges, the first significant recovery in income, which had dropped from 3.3 billion dollars in 1919 to 1.9 billion in 1921, occurred in 1924 as a result of the rise in hog values. Likewise with income from grains; the depressed state of agriculture in the grain-growing sections is evident in the fact that income from grains remained at practically the low point of 1921 during both the 1922 and 1923 seasons. The advance in 1924 was the result of better wheat prices obtained in this country because of shortages of supplies in other countries. The relatively high and stable prices for dairy and poultry products combined with increasing production during the first five years to produce less violent fluctuations in income. The cumulative effect of increasing production appeared in 1924 in large stocks of dairy products and produced the slight decline in income shown for the 1924-25 season.

(*a*) *The Rate of Return on All Capital and Management Employed in Agriculture.*—As in the case of other industries, we may here take the rate of return on capital investment as a measure of the economic welfare of agriculture. This rate of return is computed in table 6 by deducting from the total gross income all operating costs, including property taxes and a wage allowance for the labor of farm operators and their families, and

applying the balance to the current value of all capital invested in agriculture. The rate thus obtained constitutes the return on capital and, since no allowance is made to compensate farm operators for planning and managing the year's output, is to be taken as a return on both capital and management. Furthermore, it represents the return on the entire investment, whether owned, borrowed, or rented.

In 1919-20, the rate of return amounted to 6.5 per cent. The enormous drop in income, without a proportionate decline in expenses of production, practically wiped out, for the industry as a whole, all returns on agricultural capital and rewards for management. In 1920-21, capital earnings represented a return on the entire investment of less than one per cent, which was not sufficient to cover interest on indebtedness and rent on rented farms. If these obligations were met, the actual farm operators must have drawn on their cash and credit reserves or received less than the hired-hand-wage allowed them for their labor. Practically the same conditions existed in 1921-22. As a result of the recent advance in prices, rather than of any readjustment in costs, the rate reached 4.6 per cent for 1924-25.

TABLE VI

RATES EARNED ON AGRICULTURAL CAPITAL, INCLUDING REWARDS FOR MANAGEMENT

Year July 1—June 30	Current value of total capital invested in agriculture [1]	Net income available for total capital investment [2]	Rate earned on total capital
	Million dollars	Million dollars	Per cent
1919-20	79,607	5,159	6.5
1920-21	72,915	532	.7
1921-22	62,740	909	1.4
1922-23	61,349	2,078	3.4
1923-24	59,548	1,992	3.3
1924-25	59,154	2,712	4.6

[1] As of Jan 1 in the period indicated. Values include land buildings, livestock, implements, machinery, motor vehicles, and an allowance for cash working capital.

[2] After deducting all operating costs and property taxes, and wage allowance for labor of farm operators and their families.

In comparing these returns on agricultural property with the rates of return in other industries, certain facts need to be borne in mind. The returns shown here include the rewards for both capital used and managerial services contributed by the farmers. In other industries, salaries for management are deducted before computing rates earned on the capital investment. Furthermore, no allowance is here made for either the tremendous declines in the values of agricultural land, buildings and equipment, nor for the actual losses suffered by those farmers who during this period bought farms at high values and sold at lower prices. On the other hand, the returns are in addition to the house rent furnished by the industry to the farm operators, since this form of rent was not included as a part of income.

(*b*) *Reward for Operator's Capital and Management.*—Periods of prosperity and depression do not affect all owners of farm property to the same degree. The return on capital invested in farm mortgages, or in farms rented out on a share or cash basis to farm operators, is fairly constant and, being a primary obligation, is fairly certain compared with the fluctuations in earnings on the farmer's own capital. It is therefore highly important to observe how agricultural conditions of the past five years have affected the earnings on the farm operators' own capital as distinguished from the rates they paid on borrowed capital or on rented farms. In making this distinction, farm operators may be likened to the stockholders of the farm industry while the inactive city owners of rented farms and the holders of farm mortgages may be considered the preferred stock and bondholders.

During the recent depression, such large portions of the reduced agricultural income were required to meet the expenses of production, taxes, rental payments, and interest on mortgages and other indebtedness, that little, if any, income was left as a reward for the operator's own capital investment, his labor, and managerial efforts.

A conservative wage allowance for the farmer's labor still leaves only a small return for his capital and management. In the following table the current value of the farm operator's net

capital investment was obtained by deducting, from the total shown in Table 6, the value of farms rented from non-farmers and indebtedness held by non-farmers. The reward for the operator's capital and management was obtained by deducting from gross income all costs of carrying on the farm business, including a wage allowance for the farmer's labor and for rent and interest paid to the non-farmer owners of rented farms and borrowed capital.

TABLE VII

REWARD FOR OPERATORS' NET CAPITAL INVESTMENT AND MANAGEMENT

Year July 1-June 30	Current value of operators' net capital investment	Reward for operators' capital and management [1]	Rate earned on capital including reward for management
	Million dollars	Million dollars	Per cent
1919-20	47,223	2,867	6.1
1920-21	41,126	—1,489	—3.6
1921-22	34,153	—590	—1.7
1922-23	33,755	573	1.7
1923-24	32,720	497	1.5
1924-25	32,516	1,177	3.6

[1] After deducting from gross income all operating expenses, including wages to labor, rent on farms rented from non-operators, taxes, interest on debts held by non-operators, and a wage allowance for the farmers' and family labor.

The negative rates shown for 1920-21 and 1921-22 indicate the fact that the year's income was not sufficient to yield the farmer an adequate reward for *both* his efforts and his capital. During 1924-25, the rate of return increased to 3.6 per cent from a rate of 1.5 per cent in the preceding year, but even these returns are considerably below the commercial interest returns and managerial rewards in other enterprises. It is also to be observed that these low rates of return are based on declining property values.

The validity and significance of the distinction drawn between farm operators and the inactive owners of capital invested

in agriculture is well illustrated when the rates of return earned on all capital and the rates received by the various owners are compared.

TABLE VIII

RATES OF RETURN EARNED ON ALL CAPITAL AND RATES RECEIVED BY THE VARIOUS OWNERS OF CAPITAL

Year July 1-June 30	Rate earned on all capital invested in agriculture	Rate of interest paid on mortgage and other indebtedness	Rate paid on value of cash and share-rented property	Rate earned on operators' net capital investment
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
1919-20	6.5	6.7	8.3	6.1
1920-21	.7	7.0	7.3	—3.6
1921-22	1.4	6.8	5.7	—1.7
1922-23	3.4	6.8	6.2	1.7
1923-24	3.3	6.6	6.6	1.5
1924-25	4.6	6.4	7.1	3.6

During the severest years of the depression, when the industry as a whole showed insignificant capital earnings, comparatively high rates had to be paid on indebtedness and on cash and share rented property. Farmers still pay higher rates for borrowed capital and for rented property than they earn on their own investment.

(*c*) *Reward for the Farmer's Effort.*—Another comparison of considerable value as indicating the present economic well-being of the average farmer lies in the reward for his physical and managerial efforts. If, instead of allowing farmers' wages for their labor to obtain a balance applicable on capital, as was done in table 7, we now allow capital a conservative current interest return between 4.5 and 5 per cent the balance will represent the net income available for the labor and management of the 6.4 million farm families in the United States. The results, reduced to a per farm basis, indicate that, in 1919-20, net income per family amounted to $1,269 of which the reward for all unpaid labor and management was $947. These dropped, respectively, to $543 and $294 in 1921-22. The past year's

production amounted to a net return of $876 and an indicated reward for labor and management of $649.

TABLE IX

REWARD FOR LABOR AND MANAGEMENT CONTRIBUTED BY OPERATORS AND THEIR FAMILIES

Year July 1-June 30	Net income per operator and family	Interest allowance on net capital investment, per operator	Reward per operator and family for labor and management	Wages (without board) paid to hired labor, per year
	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars
1919-20	1,269	322	947	675
1920-21	720	319	401	779
1921-22	543	249	294	520
1922-23	701	230	471	501
1923-24	764	233	531	563
1924-25	876	227	649	569

In interpreting these returns it is important to observe (*a*) that during the four years, 1920-1923, farmers paid hired labor more than they themselves earned per family; (*b*) that of the $543 net income in 1921-22 only slightly more than $200 was in cash, the balance being the value of food contributed by the farm to family living, while in 1924, of the $876 net income, about $500 was in cash; and (*c*) that out of these meager cash incomes the average farmer had to purchase manufactured foods, clothing and building materials at prices which had not declined in proportion to the decline in farm income, to pay principal on debts, and to provide a certain amount of recreation and education for his family. The inadequacy of these cash earnings, and the retrenchment in the average farmer's standard of living, is reflected in the financial condition of those industries which find in the farm population the outlet for their manufactured goods. It is seen also in statistics on delinquent taxes, unpaid debts, and bankruptcies among farmers.

XIV

SOME AGRICULTURAL POLICIES OF EUROPEAN NATIONS

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Even in normal times it is difficult to translate the legislative acts and tendencies of a nation into terms of definite agricultural policies. The status of agriculture in a country is often the result of weather forces operating in surplus producing regions and of unguided economic pressure rather than the product of legislative action. It is, indeed, an unusual occurrence when the condition of a nation's agriculture is the legitimate offspring of definite unified policies of statesmen. It is not unusual for a legislative body to pass laws which produce contradictory effects. At the present time England is expressing deep concern over the distressing condition of British agriculture. This concern, however, does not prevent the passage of an Empire Settlement Facilities Act designed to subsidize the emigration of agriculturists, thus tending to deprive England of some of her best farmers. The parliament has also appropriat.d a considerable sum to encourage trade between the dominions and the mother country. Presumably this sum will be devoted in part to the promotion of the sale of dominion grown foodstuffs in British markets in competition with the products of British agriculture. In Italy the cost of living is a burning question. It is a question of national proportions and one of political significance. Yet Italy has recently placed an import duty of around 40 cents per bushel on wheat and of from one to one and one-half cents per pound on sugar. In addition the important cities collect a tax

on most necessities brought within their walls for the purpose of sale. All three procedures are directly reflected in the cost of living.

It is not the purpose of this paper to discuss the merits or demerits of the examples given above. They are mentioned for the purpose of emphasizing the point that agricultural policies have their elusive aspects. If there be a dominant note common to European nations in their attitude toward agriculture, that note is "self-sufficiency." Although "self-sufficiency" is in many cases impossible of realization, nevertheless, it is a cherished hope.

Not many years ago the world fought a war to abolish war. Most nations remember the war, but many of them seem to have forgotten the abolishing phase of the war. One gathers that some of the nations have a lingering suspicion that the last war may not have been the end of war.

Take Switzerland for example: Switzerland was a neutral. With a grim smile a Swiss will tell you that his nation was not in the last war. He will also tell you that his nation was in a position similar to the man whose house suffered slightly from a fire but whose goods were totally destroyed by water used in preventing the fire. The cure was little better than the catastrophe. Although the Swiss were not at war they suffered most of the pangs of war. The nation still experiences a dread when she recalls her bread lines, her butter cards, and her food tickets. During the war Switzerland, a nation of dairymen, had to control her butter distribution in order that hospitals and the needy be supplied. As a result of her food shortage she made the purchase of cereals a government monopoly. This monopoly expires at the end of 1926. At the present time the price of wheat to Swiss growers is 8 francs per 100 kilograms more than the price of the same grade of foreign wheat delivered at the border—a subsidy of around 45 cents a bushel. At the end of 1926 the people of Switzerland must decide whether or not they wish to continue to pay in the name of national security this added price for breadstuffs.

THE BATTLE OF WHEAT IN ITALY

Take another example along the same line. Italy is at present staging a great *Battaglia del Grano*—The Battle of Wheat.

This battle of wheat is conducted with all the zest and gesture of a liberty loan campaign, with national committees, provincial committees, district committees, local committees. It is furthered by posters, gifts, prizes, films and miles of front page space. It has two popular appeals. In the first place it is called a battle. Battle calls for action. It has no prosaic label such as campaign or movement. In the second place it is designed to free Italy from foreign imports of wheat. It is a battle against a foreign enemy—a setting capable of universal appeal to the Italian people. The Government has appropriated 27,000,000 lire—over $1,000,000—in addition to her regular agricultural appropriations to carry on this work. The official emphasis is placed on increased yields through improved cultural methods rather than upon extension of acreage. Improved cultural methods is a good agricultural policy in peace time or war. It is an especially wise policy when applied to increased wheat production in Italy. One may seriously doubt the benefits to be derived by Italy in an attempt to grow more wheat through extension of area. Already over one-half of her arable land is in grain. Additional land given over to this crop is likely to mean production on less suitable land or land brought under cultivation at a high cost. Either procedure means a higher production cost in growing wheat. Although the emphasis is placed on increased yields it is probable that area will be extended. The Italian government has restored the wheat import duty of 7.50 gold lire per quintal—more than 40 cents per bushel—which immediately raised the price of wheat. This increased price plus the competitive zeal of committees and individual farmers is likely to result in a material extension of acreage.

Perhaps it is not a correct statement to say that this *Battaglia del Grano* in Italy is a military measure. But certainly it is one of national economic security. The unfavorable balance of

trade, caused in considerable measure by large wheat imports, had an adverse effect upon the value of the lire. The immediate purpose of growing more wheat is to reduce imports in order to relieve the pressure on the lire. Hence, one cannot say that the movement is a military measure, although it be one of national defense. It is certain that the experience of the last war gives it impetus. This "battle" is an interesting experiment to watch. Whatever the outcome, it has served to emphasize the importance of agriculture to the Italian people.

THE ENGLISH SITUATION

Now let us return to England. England's agricultural reform agitation has passed through the investigation stages of royal commission, tribunal and special committee. A guaranteed price was enacted and repealed. A wages board was set up, abolished, and established again. Agricultural conditions are occupying the attention of statesmen of all parties. The party proposing an acceptable remedy will be able to capitalize its proposal in terms of political advantage. That advantage is based not so much upon the importance of the political strength of the rural population as it is upon the fact that the nation is looking toward a prosperous agriculture to assist in the solution of other national problems. At present the number of unemployed in Great Britain is greater than the number engaged in agriculture. More food and more employment from the land are the ends in view. It is expected that the benefits of such an adjustment will extend beyond the confines of agriculture itself. Subsidies in one form or another have been proposed with persistent regularity. The amount of land under the plow seems to be accepted as an index to agricultural prosperity. Hence, it has been proposed that the nation pay a subsidy for cultivated acres. For one year only—1921—a subsidy of 3 pounds per acre for wheat and 4 pounds per acre for oats was paid. This act was hurriedly repealed because of the financial burden which it threatened to place upon the state. It does not seem likely that

Great Britain with its large urban population will adopt either a protective tariff on agricultural products, or subsidize the farmer on the basis of land put into tilled crops.

This feeling lends importance to the most recent proposal which is fathered by the Liberal Party led by no less a personage than Lloyd George. The claims of the Liberal Party are based upon the contention that the English landlord, through wasteful and inefficient methods, has violated a public trust, and for that reason is an unfit guardian of the land. A second contention is that undercapitalization of farm operations is one of the roots of the present trouble. One of the economic justifications of a landlord, so the Liberal Party holds, is the furnishing of capital at low rates and the contribution of agricultural leadership. The contention is that the present-day English landlord furnishes neither. It is held that the landlord is unable to finance the farm operations in an adequate manner, nor will he be able to do so in the future. The conclusion is that the state is the only agency in position to advance the necessary funds and for that reason the state should take over the land.

The proposals of the Liberal Party may be summarized as follows:

1. That the state take over the land.
2. That the landlord receive from the state an annual payment based upon the earning capacity of the land.
3. That the state rent the land to tenants according to a system known as "cultivating tenure." This form of tenure is based upon the ability of the tenant to cultivate his acres in a husbandlike manner. This right of tenure may be handed down to heirs.

The fact that these proposals are receiving serious consideration emphasizes one of the noticeable differences in the psychology of the British and American farmer. In America the "pride of land ownership" is a vital motive force in agricultural affairs. The desire to own the acres they till is an ambition universal among farmers in this country. In England the operating

farmer has been divorced so long from the ownership of the land that the proposal for land nationalization means, for the most part, merely the exchange of a private landlord for a public one.

Perhaps the startling thing about the program of the Liberal Party lies not in the proposals themselves, but in the fact that, though they have a Russian flavor, they come from a responsible political party in conservative England. The end in view in England is definite: More food and more employment from the land. Denmark is held up as the shining example. The means to the end will be of interest to American agriculture, for, theoretically, it is not a long way from the proposals of the Liberal Party in England to the present agricultural program of Soviet Russia.

THE RUSSIAN PROGRAM

Immediately after the revolution of 1917 the Russian government nationalized the land. Agricultural communes and soviet estates were established. A part of this program was the requisitioning of all surplus cereals for the use of the urban population and the army. The peasant proved to be communistic in so far as participation in the use of the land was concerned, but this communism did not extend to giving over the surplus products of his labor. As a result the peasant saw to it that his farm yielded no surplus beyond the needs of his own family. This situation led to a breakdown in agricultural production which in turn led to the adoption of a new agrarian code in 1922. This code, together with subsequent modifications, gives the peasant a permanent tenure based on his ability to cultivate the land—a tenure not unlike that proposed by the Liberal Party in England. In addition the tenant has the right to dispose of his surplus on the open market and remit his tax payments to the government in cash. Indications are not lacking that the position of the Russian peasant is approaching a status satisfactory to himself. If this be the case the world may look to a speedy recovery of agricultural production in Russia.

LAND REFORM IN THE BALKANS

In dealing with European agricultural policies, one cannot overlook the sweeping land reforms of the Balkan States. Roumania furnishes a good example of the tendency. Before the war one-half of the land area in that country was held by less than 6 per cent of the land owners. In 1917 Roumania passed legislation extending the right of expropriation of lands to include not only purposes of public utility, but also purposes of national unity. Expropriation was adopted as a means of giving legally to the peasant something he probably would have taken illegally. Revolution threatened, if the land hunger of the populace were not appeased. The peasant may have fought in the world war in behalf of his country but he also fought for the right to possess a small part of it. Lands of the crown, absentees, corporations, foreigners, and proprietors of large holdings were taken over by the state for reallotment to peasant proprietors. By this action large properties were reduced from 49 per cent of the total area before the war to 14 per cent. Formerly some of the estates reached 40,000 acres in size. After the land reform took place none contained over 1,235 acres. The state intended to pay an equitable price for this land. The price was fixed by various methods such as: 1. The average market price for the 5-year period ending August 15, 1916. 2. Evaluations made by specialists. 3. Twenty times the rental value for the year 1916. Payments were made in 5 per cent land bonds redeemable within 50 years. This provision, although based on good intentions, resulted in actual confiscation of the property because of the depreciation of the money of the country. In 1924, the land bonds accepted on the 1916 valuations were not worth over one year's gold rental of the land they represented.

What has been the result of this land reform? Many claim that the redivision of the land into small properties has resulted in decreased production. Certainly the exportable surpluses have not reached the prewar levels in these countries. However, I am not ready to accept, on the evidence available, the claim

that the land reform movement is wholly responsible for this decrease. Most of the territory in question was the scene of actual war operation. Industry and agriculture were disorganized. The country is not the same as before the war. We have no assurance that production would be as great as it is even though there had been no change in the system of land ownership. Furthermore, some allowance should be made for the growing pains of a transition period. The peasants are working in a new environment under a new system. Experience should become a cumulative asset. Adaptation is a matter of time. It is with some hesitancy that one accepts exportable surpluses as the sole index of a nation's agricultural welfare. The large estates carried on a commercial agriculture producing largely to sell, while the peasant now produces first for his own consumption and secondly for the market. If production for the home permits the peasants to maintain a higher standard of living than formerly the policy is entirely justified. Since the population is largely an agricultural one a higher standard of living on the farm means a higher national standard. It is advisable that one withhold judgment on the economic efficiency of the Balkan land reforms until a later date.

AMERICAN INTEREST

American agriculture is interested in European agricultural policies. No sound national program for agriculture can ignore the agricultural tendencies of other countries. Of all the manifestations, the farmer of the United States is most interested, perhaps, in the self-sufficing aspirations of nations which before the war were satisfied to depend upon other countries for a considerable portion of their agricultural supplies. One cannot say whether this is a temporary aftermath of the war, or the beginning of a lasting situation. Certainly such aspirations exist. In some countries their expression takes the form of an agricultural tariff such as exists in Germany and in Italy. In other countries it may be a subsidy such as the wheat monopoly in Switzerland or the one proposed in connection with the plowed

land area in England. There is a still more important and subtle barrier to our own products in some foreign lands. In many countries American agricultural products are likely to meet with increasing opposition in the form of good will propaganda for the consumption of home grown products.

Another factor presents itself. Many nations which are our best customers in the purchase of agricultural products are contracting to repay huge war debts. In general, this payment must come about through increased sales to us, and decreased purchases from us. One may guess that a full share of the increased sales and decreased purchases will fall upon the products of American agriculture.

If the tendencies portrayed in this paper are a correct interpretation of the facts, then one may well ask the question: Shall the directing forces of agriculture in this country devote attention to an orderly readjustment of production to the demands of the home markets—within reasonable limits—or shall we let unguided economic pressure with its usual array of casualties accomplish the same result?

PART II

THE PROGRAMS OF NATIONAL AGENCIES ENGAGED IN RURAL SOCIAL WORK

AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION AND THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF AGENCIES ENGAGED IN RURAL SOCIAL WORK

The first national country life conference held at Baltimore, January 6-7, 1919, was attended by 175 persons from 30 states, who represented 25 national organizations and five federal bureaus engaged in country life work. The conference was such a distinct success that the American Country Life Association was formed and a committee on a permanent constitution was authorized to report at the next conference.

For purposes of clarifying the idea represented by the term "Country Life" the following phases have been selected as belonging to the country life field:

Home-making
Rural Education.
Health and Sanitation
Recreation and Social Life
Morals and Religious Activities
Communications
Rural Leadership Training
Rural Government and Legislation
Social Welfare
Rural Organization
Investigation of Rural Social Problems
Teaching of Rural Sociology
Country Planning
International Country Life Movement
Public Information

The purpose of the Association as stated in its constitution is: "To facilitate discussion of the problems and objectives in country life and the means of their solution and attainment; to further the efforts and increase the efficiency of persons, agencies, and institutions engaged in this field; to disseminate information calculated to promote a better understanding of country life, and to aid in rural improvement."

ACTIVITIES OF THE ASSOCIATION

The American Country Life Association is composed of persons and organizations actively engaged in the solution of problems, or who are interested in the scientific study and interpretation of problems in the country life field. It is the only organization of its kind of national scope, emphasizing the human factor in agriculture [from a national point of view]. The functions of the Association are to:

Emphasize the importance of the country life problem;

Help to formulate an all-round program of life on the land according to American ideals;

Help to coördinate country life agencies;

Coöperate with country life clubs, state-wide and local;

Conduct an annual country life conference;

Publish proceedings of its conferences and *Rural America*, a monthly periodical;

Promote the training of rural leaders;

Retain the coöperation and support of a substantial number of members and affiliated organizations;

Maintain the National Council of Agencies Engaged in Rural Social Work;

Serve as a national information bureau on country life affairs;

Maintain administrative offices and staff at 1849 Grand Central Terminal Building, New York City.

It has published seven volumes, averaging 225 pages each, on the country life movement as follows:

Vol I.—Contains the objectives or goals which the country life movement aims to reach (out of print).

Vol. II.—Is a compendium on the problem of rural health.

Vol. III.—Centers about the problems involved in Rural organization.

Vol. IV.—Is entitled *Relationships of Village, Town and Open Country.*

Vol. V.—Is an attempt to cover the field of rural education.

Vol. VI.—Is perhaps the only volume of its kind on the rural home.

Vol. VII.—Is a frank facing up to the question of religion in country life.

These can be secured from the University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, at $2.00 per volume.

The official organ of the A. C. L. A. is *Rural America,* published monthly, with the exception of July and August, which carries current reviews of events and literature of country life progress in its diverse aspects and articles by leaders in this field, national and international. The Association also publishes a country life reading list, and outlines of study courses for neighborhood clubs and leadership training groups.

The membership is composed of forward-looking farmers and farm women, publicists, ministers, teachers, men and women of affairs, social workers, leaders of agriculture, students and teachers of rural sociology and education, country farm and home demonstration agents, and others from both city and country in the United States and Canada who have a vision of a permanent progressive living on the land.

The annual dues are $5.00. A contributing membership is $10 a year; supporting membership $25 to $100; coöperating membership $100 and over. For the payment of dues the member receives, in addition to privileges of membership, *Rural America* for the year and the volume of proceedings which contains the papers and discussions presented at the last annual conference. Applications for membership should be addressed to the office of the Association, with remittances made payable to Mr. Charles F. Jenkins, Treasurer.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

The first conference of the American Country Life Association created a committee which was to call a conference of national rural social agencies "for the purpose of coördinating the programs of these various agencies in order that duplication and waste effort may be avoided." This committee pursued its task with unusual diligence and skill, and its chairman, Dr. C. W. Thompson, submitted its report at the second annual conference of the association at Chicago in November, 1919. This report created such favorable impressions that the committee was at once instructed to continue its studies.

The national agencies called together by Dr. Thompson at Washington, D. C., in April, 1919, passed a resolution requesting the American Country Life Association to call together representatives of these agencies at such future times as might seem desirable. A number of the agencies later requested Dr. Kenyon L. Butterfield, the president of the association, to issue such a call.

Under President Butterfield's leadership, nineteen agencies sent representatives to a meeting called in New York City on March thirtieth, 1920. These representatives passed a motion requesting the American Country Life Association to call together the representatives of certain agencies for "the formation of a council of national agencies engaged in rural social work." The purposes of such council as well as the principles which should guide its activities were thoroughly discussed. A final motion was passed requesting the executive committee of the American Country Life Association to "organize the council as an integral part of the American Country Life Association."

Acting upon the instruction of this conference, President Butterfield called the representatives of these various agencies and organizations together again at Washington, D. C., on December 30, 1920. Twenty national agencies were represented. At this meeting a plan of organization was presented and later adopted. In the plan of organization the following words are found: "The Council shall be organized as an integral

part of the American Country Life Association; the chairman of the Council shall be designated by the executive committee of the Association, and if necessary, the Association will endeavor to provide either officials or financial assistance adequate to provide special officers and equipment."

From the above condensed statement of the development of the National Council it will be seen that those who promoted the idea had in mind a very close relationship between the Council and the American Country Life Association. The functions of the two organizations are, however, distinct. The Association is a conference body whose membership is made up of individuals. The Council, on the other hand, is an advisory body whose membership is composed of representatives of national agencies or organizations.

Principles of the National Council and Plan of Organization.—When the National Council was formally organized at Washington on December 30, 1920, it adopted the following set of by-laws which formulate the plan of organization and state the principles under which the council is to function:

1. The Council shall consist of national, public or private organizations and agencies, engaged in rural social work, represented by one voting delegate and not to exceed two additional non-voting delegates chosen by each such organization or agency.

2. The purpose of the Council shall be to enable the associating agencies to discuss their programs and policies with other agencies of the Council; to prevent overlapping and duplication of rural social work; to enable the associating agencies to coördinate their programs and to act jointly in investigating and promoting needed rural social work.

3. The Council shall have advisory functions only. Its actions shall not be binding upon the participating organizations and agencies; nor shall any agency in the Council be bound to assume any financial obligations.

4. Initial membership of the Council shall consist of such of the following organizations and agencies as indicate a desire to join the Council. . . . [Here were enumerated the agencies.]

The admission of other agencies for membership in the Coun-

cil be by an affirmative vote of a majority of the organizations and agencies of the Council.

5. The initial meeting of the Council shall be called by the Executive Committee of the American Country Life Association. Subsequent meetings of the Council shall be held as frequently and at such times and places as the Council itself may determine.

6. The Council shall be organized as an integral part of the A. C. L. A.; the chairman of the Council shall be designated by the executive committee of the Association, and if an executive secretary and clearance officer be found necessary, the A. C. L. A. will endeavor to provide either the officials or financial assistance adequate to provide special officer and equipment.

7. Amendments to these by-laws may be made by a majority vote of the voting delegates at any meeting, the proposed amendment having been included in the call for the meeting.

Projects of the National Council.—Although the National Council of Social agencies has lacked a budget and has been almost wholly occupied in defining its functions, several projects have already been attempted and the engrossing questions that are engaging the attention of the Council are as follows:

What is an advanced rural social work program?

By what means can the results of the efforts of the social agencies serving in rural communities be made available to rural dwellers?

How enrich local thinking, and local attitudes? (Suggested for a special study.)

How correlate local studies of communities with studies made by specialist's groups?

What is the content of a coöperative policy of national agencies in assisting local communities to make their own programs?

How recruit, train, and retain rural social workers?

How far, if at all, will rural social programs have to be financed by outside subsidies?

Can this Council act as an advisory body for foundations or philanthropists in land settlement, rural social welfare projects, etc. If so—how?

OFFICIALS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL

Chairman, Kenyon L. Butterfield, East Lansing, Michigan.

Secretary, Henry Israel, 1849 Grand Central Terminal Building, New York, N. Y.

A Committee on Objectives, Agency Membership, and Finance, is now in process of formation. Shillady and Stuart, Inc., Social Organization Service, is acting as general counsel and making a study of organization, program and finance problems for the year beginning September 21, 1925.

Agencies and Organizations affiliated with the National Council.—There are two general types of agencies engaged in rural social work, namely those which are privately supported and those which are supported by means of public funds. The public agencies are usually related to some broad field of work which includes the field of rural social service. Such governmental agencies cannot, of course, affiliate with the Council on the same basis as is possible with private agencies.

Private Agencies Affiliated with the National Council

American Child Health Association
American Farm Bureau Federation
American Home Economics Association
American Library Association
American National Red Cross
Board of Home Missions and Church Extension of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Department of Rural Work.
Board of National Missions, Presbyterian Church of the U. S. A., Town and Country Department
Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America
Girl Scouts
Home Missions Council
National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association; Rural Communities Department
National Child Labor Committee
National Catholic Welfare Conference

National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Association; Country Life Department
National Council of the Young Men's Christian Association; Town and Country Department
National Education Association; Rural Education Department
National Grange
National Organization for Public Health Nursing
Playground and Recreation Association of America
Russell Sage Foundation, Recreation Department

Public Agencies Affiliated with the National Council on a Co-operative Basis

U. S. Bureau of Education; Rural Education Division
U. S. Department of Agriculture; Division of Farm Population and Rural Life
U. S. Department of Agriculture; Extension Service
U. S. Department of Labor; Children's Bureau
U. S. Public Health Service

AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION

Organization.—The American Child Health Association was incorporated in January, 1923.

Purpose.—Its purposes are the saving of life; the prevention of disease; the promotion of health and development of children of all ages; prevention and correction of defects which interfere with health and normal growth; teaching the principles and practice of general and personal health in the home and the school; health education of parents and children; and improving the standards of training of physicians, nurses and teachers of child health.

Services Rendered.—The division of public health relations aids state and local officials in their campaigns to reduce infant and maternal mortality, to promote the health of mothers and children of all ages, to provide for a supply of clean and wholesome milk and to secure accurate and complete birth registration.

The nursing work of the Association is done by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing (for a description see page 184). The medical division gives advice regarding the care of mothers, babies and older children, the establishment and organization of medical conferences and clinics, the medical examination of school children, securing team work between the practicing physician and public health agencies and other medical matters. The health education division is working on problems in physical education, home economics, kindergarten and general education. The research division obtains accurate knowledge of needs in the health field and the ways and means by which the Association can most effectively meet them.

Method of Procedure.—The Association renders both direct and indirect services to organizations and individuals in the child health field.

Territory Covered at Present.—The entire United States.

How Individuals May Secure Services.—On application to the American Child Health Association.

Publications and Exhibits.—The Association publishes a bulletin occasionally and coöperates with popular, professional, class and trade journals and the press. It is promoting May Day as a national child health day. A list of other publications is available on application.

Officers.—Herbert Hoover, president; S. J. Crumbine, general executive.

Headquarters Office.—370 Seventh Avenue, New York City.

AMERICAN FARM BUREAU FEDERATION

Organization.—The American Farm Bureau Federation was formed in 1919 as a federation of state farm bureau organizations.

Purpose.—To develop a completely unified national organization to act as spokesman for the farmer and to adequately represent the farmer and the farmer's interests; to foster and develop all those lines of endeavor which make for better homes, better social and religious life, better health and better rural living in

every sense; to defend the farmer's interest in all matters relating to tax levies, tariffs, currency, banking, railways, highways, waterways, foreign markets, the merchant marine and all similar legislative matters.

Services Rendered.—The Federation has departments on legislation, taxation, information, research marketing, organization, etc. It has a national committee on home and community work.

Methods of Procedure.—The Federation renders services to state and county farm bureau organizations, through the state offices.

Territory Covered.—Thirty-seven states.

Publications.—A list of publications is available on request.

Headquarters Address.—58 East Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION

Organization.—The Association was organized in 1908 and incorporated in 1909.

Purpose.—To bring together those concerned in developing the art of right living by the application of systematized knowledge to the problems of the home and the community.

Services Rendered.—The "A. H. E. A." is a professional association including teachers, extension workers, homemakers, institution workers, women in business. It has the following sections: Food and Nutrition, Home Economics Education, Home Economics Extension, Institution Economics, Textile Home Economics in Business, Related Art, and Homemakers. There are forty-seven affiliated state associations, including the District of Columbia.

Method of Procedure.—Members coöperate with other agencies and hold an annual conference. The Association touches the rural field largely through the extension service; one section of the Association is devoted entirely to this work.

Territory Covered.—The United States and Canada, with a scattered membership in foreign countries.

Publications.—*The Journal of Home Economics*, issued monthly.

Present Officers.—Katherine Blunt, president; Lita Bane, executive secretary; Helen W. Atwater, editor.

Headquarters Address.—Room 617, Mills Building, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

Organization.—The American Library Association was organized in Philadelphia, October 6, 1876 (inc. 1879) as the immediate result of a three days' library conference held in connection with the Centennial Exhibition.

Purpose.—To foster the development of libraries and the use of books; and to assist in making books a vital, working, educational force in American life, and in making libraries easily accessible to all people.

Services Rendered.—Advisory assistance to all who are interested in library establishment, extension and development; promoting the development of libraries, especially in rural districts; maintaining a free employment bureau which serves librarians seeking positions, and libraries which need librarians and assistants; publishing books, periodicals and pamphlets which aid in the establishment of libraries, and which aid trustees and librarians in rendering library service; holding annual conferences (open to the public) for the discussion of library topics, and publishing the conference papers and proceedings; attracting promising young men and women who have the necessary personal and educational qualifications, to library work as a profession.

The Association is especially interested in promoting county libraries. It is prepared to supply exhibits, leaflets for distribution, pictures for reproduction in periodicals, slides for illustrating county library talks and special advisory assistance in any county library problem. (See publications mentioned below).

The Association is making a preliminary investigation of library extension, to ascertain how many people in the United States lack library service and where they are; a report is to be issued in October, 1926.

Method of Procedure.—The Association gives advisory assistance by correspondence and in personal conference. It promotes

library development through general library publicity. It always works through local and state library agencies where such agencies exist. It publishes pamphlets and books, which contain information on book selection and book buying; lists of children's books on special subjects; lists of books in foreign languages; various indexes, as for example, an index to kindergarten songs and an index to plays for children; a series of manuals of library economy; pamphlets on library establishment, buildings, and training; cataloging; children's libraries; school libraries; mending and binding, etc.

Much important work is done through active committees, including, for example, committees on legislation, federal and state relations, institutional libraries, work with the blind, work with the foreign born. Special investigations are being made in library training by the board of education for librarianship and in library service in adult education by the commission on the library and adult education; a comprehensive survey of libraries of various types and sizes is under way. The Association sponsors the work of the Paris Library School.

Territory Covered.—The United States and Canada especially, but the Association has members in many foreign countries.

How Individuals May Secure Services.—By applying to the American Library Association, 86 East Randolph Street, Chicago, Ill.

Publications.—Publications issued not for profit but in the interest of library progress, are available to rural communities and individuals:

(*a*) Leaflets such as: (1) *A County Library;* (2) *McCutcheon Cartoon Poster and Bookmark;* (3) *A Shelf of Books for a One-Room School;* (4) *The Child and the Book;* (5) *What Is a Reasonable Income for Your Library?* These are sold or furnished for free distribution in small quantities when publicity literature is needed to stimulate local interest in library establishment or development.

(*b*) More extensive studies; *e.g.* (1) *Country Library Service,* by Harriett C. Long; (2) *Material and Plans for a County*

Library Campaign, by Forrest B. Spaulding. These are sold at nominal prices.

(*c*) A small collection of scrapbooks of press clippings, pictures, slides and other publicity material.

Officers.—Secretary, Carl H. Milam, 86 East Randolph Street, Chicago, Ill.

Headquarters Address.—86 East Randolph Street, Chicago, Ill.

AMERICAN NATIONAL RED CROSS

Organization.—The Red Cross in the United States was first incorporated in July, 1881, as the American National Association of the Red Cross. It is one of a confederation of fifty autonomous national Red Cross societies, each recognized by its own government and the governments of nations which have societies. These were formed in accordance with the recommendations of the International Conference of Geneva of 1863, which were given to the world in the Treaty of Geneva adopted by a second conference in 1864.

Purpose.—The American National Red Cross is a volunteer society chartered by the Congress of the United States to represent the American people in the performance of humanitarian services made necessary by wars, and by catastrophes and diseases that afflict humanity in war and peace.

The greater part of the strength and accomplishment of the American Red Cross in peace is in the territory outside the large cities. The activities of a majority of its more than 3,500 chapters are in rural territory; particularly is this true of the work of those departments engaged in disaster relief, public health nursing, home service, volunteer service.

Services Rendered.—A recent study showed that 1,798 of its chapters had jurisdiction in counties containing no town of 8,000 or more population. In addition, many other chapters having towns of 8,000 or more in their territories are carrying on work in towns of less than 8,000 and in rural territory in the counties. A chapter with headquarters in a city or large town, may have a considerable program in rural territory.

Services of the national organization are divided into the following: disaster relief, war relief, public health nursing, home hygiene and care of the sick, nutrition, life-saving, first aid, volunteer, the Junior Red Cross. An itinerant public health nursing service has now been established to meet the needs of chapters in rural territory unable to finance a full-time nursing service.

Method of Procedure.—The vice-chairman in charge of domestic operations, acting under the chairman's authority, assists the chapters through a chapter service. By this chapter service, with a field service and chapter correspondence, close relations are maintained between the national organization and its local units, the chapters and branches. By personal visit and by letter the chapters are given advice and assistance in the conduct of their local operations. Chapter service, in turn, has available the experience of the trained men and women who are the national directors of the Red Cross services.

Territory Covered.—The entire United States.

How Individuals May Secure Services.—The American Red Cross is a membership organization, its ranks open to all adult Americans. Each year from Armistice Day to Thanksgiving it conducts its annual membership enrolment. During this "roll call" it invites every adult American to join the Red Cross. The membership for 1925 was about 3,360,000.

Publications.—Local chapters in some instances have exhibits displaying work for local conferences, exhibitions and fairs. The national headquarters has material for sectional and regional events.

The official publication of the American Red Cross is the *Red Cross Courier*, issued semi-monthly. The subscription price is $1.00 a year. The Junior Red Cross issues two publications monthly from September to May: *The Junior Red Cross News* (50 cents) for elementary schools and *High School Service* ($1.00) for secondary schools. Various pamphlets are issued from time to time for free distribution.

Other publications available include: *Red Cross Course in Food Selection*, 50 cents; *Nutrition Bibliography*, 25 cents; *Outlines*

of Nine Talks to Teachers (Public Health Nursing) 35 cents; *Handbook of Social Resources in the U. S.*, $1.00; *First Aid Text Book*—general edition, cloth 75 cents, paper 40 cents; industrial edition, 40 cents; women's edition, 40 cents; railroad edition 40 cents; miner's edition, 30 cents; foreign edition, 30 cents; *First Aid Relief Columns*, $1.00; *Home Hygiene and Care of the Sick Textbook*, cloth $1.25, paper 70 cents; *Rural School Nursing*, 35 cents; *The American Red Cross, Its Origin, Purposes and Service*, 50 cents.

Officers.—Secretary, Mabel T. Boardman; Vice-Chairman in Charge of Domestic Operations, James L. Fieser.

Headquarters Address.—Washington, D. C.

BOARD OF HOME MISSIONS AND CHURCH EXTENSION OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH; DEPARTMENT OF RURAL WORK

Organization.—The Department was authorized by the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church in May, 1916. The work began in January, 1917.

Purpose.—The purposes of the Department are stated in the legislation of the General Conference in the following terms: To encourage the organization of rural societies; to make surveys in rural church fields; to apportion home mission funds in the rural field for demonstration and other purposes; to promote the study of rural sociology among ministers, etc.

Services Rendered.—The Department has organized and promoted forty-two rural minister's associations. (In a few cases these organizations are called rural life commissions or rural life conferences.) In addition, the department has organized and promoted 101 rural district societies or associations in various sections of the country.

Special chairs of rural leadership are maintained in the theological seminaries and the colleges of the denomination with the coöperation of the Department of Rural Work. Several women workers are maintained to develop programs of children's work and religious education in rural communities.

Method of Procedure.—The service of the Department to rural communities is carried out ultimately through the work of the local pastor. The pastors are appointed by the district superintendents and bishops, who coöperate with the Department in the selection of men especially equipped for the development of rural work. These men are placed in difficult rural charges with missionary support until such time as these can be brought to adequate self-support. The methods of work encouraged are dependent upon local conditions and needs, but include in a general way, a parish survey and the adoption of a program of community service designed to meet the immediate and urgent needs of the community. In addition, the Department is encouraging interdenominational coöperation for country programs of community service.

Territory Covered.—The Department's work covers all the territory of the United States, including Hawaii, Porto Rico and Alaska.

How Individuals May Secure Services.—The Department endeavors to limit all grants for church extension or for home missionary aid to charges which are absolutely free from problems of interdenominational competition and encourages the adjustment of relationships as a preliminary to recommending financial support. A small emergency fund is also available in cases of fire, flood, or unforeseen catastrophe. Literature and information with reference to the program of the Board of Home Missions and Church Extension may be secured on application made to the headquarters office. Applications for missionary or church extension aid must have the approval of the rural district society or conference board.

Publications.—*The Rural Evangel*, a monthly magazine, is sent to ministers.

Officers.—Bishop Joseph F. Berry, President; David D. Forsyth, Corresponding Secretary. Department of Rural Work: M. A. Dawber, Superintendent.

Headquarters Address.—1701 Arch Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

BOARD OF NATIONAL MISSIONS, PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA; TOWN AND COUNTRY DEPARTMENT

Organization.—The Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A. was organized in 1816. The Church and Country Life Work was begun in 1910. The Board of National Missions and the present department were organized in 1923.

Purpose.—To advise and assist synods, presbyteries and local churches of the denomination in their rural work programs.

Services Rendered.—Evangelism, the location of resident pastors, the erection of manses, provision for adequate salaries, preparation of programs, extensive correspondence with ministers and religious workers of all denominations, short course training for ministers and religious workers in the country (men and women), the administration of about fifty "demonstration parishes" in all parts of the country, the making and publishing of social surveys, publicity service.

Method of Procedure.—The work is organized according to synods which correspond in general to states, and according to presbyteries which are local fellowships covering in each case from three to ten counties. The unit of work is the parish, with the pastor or other worker resident.

Territory Covered.—The boundaries of the United States, Alaska, Cuba, Porto Rico, and Santo Domingo. Under the Board of National Missions there are employed 1980 missionaries, five-sixths of whom are rural. The rural department is directing work in over fifty communities and employs about ninety workers.

Officers.—General Secretary of the Board, John A. Marquis. Director of Town and Country Department, Warren H. Wilson.

Headquarters Address.—156 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA

Organization.—The Federal Council of Churches was organized in 1908. Rural work was begun in 1910.

Purpose.—The Council aims to coördinate the work of twenty-eight coöperating denominations in social service, race relations, international justice and goodwill, evangelism, research and education, etc.

Services Rendered.—Through the organization of state councils or federations of churches, the rural work of coöperating denominations is assisted and coördinated. The state councils doing most rural work are in Ohio, Massachusetts, Connecticut and Pennsylvania. Organizations are in process in other states. These federations or councils aim to adjust interchurch relations in rural communities. They relate the church to other social agencies. They also organize county councils or federations of churches.

The Department of Research and Education maintains a rural research committee which assembles data on rural developments, answers inquiries and assembles bibliographies.

The Council coöperates with the Institute of Social and Religious Research which is making surveys of social and religious conditions in the country.

Method of Procedure.—The Council's work is mainly done through coöperating denominations, state and city federations or councils of churches and local churches and pastors. The public is reached, however, through publicity, conferences, etc.

Territory Covered.—The entire United States.

How Individuals May Secure Services.—On application to the Federal Council of Churches.

Publications.—A list of publications is available on application. Those most directly related to some aspects of the work of the rural church are circulated by the Commissions on Social Service, Race Relations, International Justice and Goodwill and by the Department of Research and Education.

The *Information Service*, issued weekly, contains data on rural developments and an annual review of rural life. A pamphlet study entitled *Social Aspects of Coöperative Marketing* has also been issued.

Officers.—S. Parkes Cadman, president; Charles S. Macfar-

land and Samuel McCrea Cavert, general secretaries; Benson Y. Landis, secretary, Rural Committee of the Department of Research and Education.

Headquarters Office.—105 East 22nd Street, New York City.

GIRL SCOUTS

Organization.—The Girl Scouts was founded in the United States by Mrs. Juliette Low in 1912 and incorporated as a national organization in 1925. It is a development of the Girl Guide program formulated by Sir Robert Baden-Powell, founder of the Boy Scouts, to meet the needs of girls.

Purpose.—The purpose of this organization is to help girls to realize the ideals of womanhood as a preparation for their responsibilities in the home and in service to the community. It favors no creed, party or sect, but brings to all girls the opportunity for group experience, outdoor life and learning through work and play out of school hours to serve their communities. It teaches group responsibility, and that the real aim in life is to "play the game" for the good of all.

Services Rendered.—For purposes of administration, the country has been divided into regions, each in charge of a director of the national organization who has had organization training and experience. It is her duty to help in the organization of new councils already organized when so desired, and to give training courses for Girl Scout leaders and council members.

Method of Procedure.—Membership in the Girl Scouts is not restricted by race, creed or color, and is open to any girl who expresses a desire to join and voluntarily accepts the Girl Scout Promise and Laws. The membership, as of June 30th, 1925, was 122,313, including 14,787 Girl Scout leaders. During 1924, 233 Local Councils registered, representing about 800 communities.

A troop committee, as its name implies, is a committee formed of from three to five older women (and men, if desired) to sponsor one particular troop and act in an advisory capacity to the

captain of the troop. Such committees are responsible to the local council or the community committee in all work undertaken by the troop it represents. In a community where girl scouting is new the troop committee may be the nucleus for the community committee and later the local council. The troop consisting of at least eight girls, is the local administrative unit.

Territory Covered.—Girl Scouts exist in every State in the Union, in Hawaii, Alaska, Panama and Porto Rico. The Girl Scouts are associated with the general movement of scouting which is organized in nearly all the civilized countries of the world, through the International Council of Scouts, which holds an annual meeting in some one of these countries.

How Individuals May Secure Services.—Any person desiring information about the Girl Scout movement or the organization of Girl Scout troops may secure it by writing directly to the National Headquarters. In a community where there is a local Girl Scout headquarters, the council there should be the medium of communication.

Publication.—The official Handbook, *Scouting for Girls*, outlines the technique of the program, and aims to treat comprehensively, for Girl Scout purposes, such topics as home making, child nursing, home nursing, first aid, personal and public health, camping, gardening, nature study and map making. There are profuse illustrations. At the present time this handbook is in process of revision.

Among other Girl Scout publications are *Campward Ho*, a manual for camp directors; *Girl Scout Song Book*, *The American Girl*, the official magazine for Girl Scouts; *The Girl Scout Leader*, a bulletin mailed each month with the exception of July and August, free of charge, to all leaders, and a variety of plays and pamphlets. A complete list may be secured by addressing the Girl Scout national headquarters.

Officers.—Mrs. Herbert Hoover, president; Mrs. Jane Deeter Rippin, director.

Headquarters.—670 Lexington Avenue, New York City.

HOME MISSIONS COUNCIL

Organization.—Rural work of the Home Missions Council was begun in 1908.

Purpose.—The Home Missions Council is a national coöperative agency of forty mission boards. It aims to coördinate the work of its constituent bodies in all home mission fields, including the rural work.

Services Rendered.—Through the Town and Country Committee, which has on it representatives of coöperating agencies having organized rural home mission work, the Council renders the following services: Coöperates in carrying out the special short course training for rural ministers held usually in six to eight colleges and state universities every summer; promotes a standard program of work in rural churches; secures coöperation between existing home mission agencies and endeavors to eliminate competition; coöperates with the Institute of Social and Religious Research which is making studies of rural church conditions; provides a meeting place for the directors of rural work of the coöperating agencies.

In California, Utah, Washington, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, South Dakota, Kansas, North Dakota, Wisconsin and Minnesota, there are state Home Mission Councils which have done much to provide service for every community. They have also sought to lessen duplication and gross competition. A Council of workers with Spanish-speaking Americans and also an Oriental Missions Conference are doing constructive work in their respective groups.

Method of Procedure.—The work of the Home Mission Council is done through coöperating denominations, state organizations, local churches and pastors.

Territory Covered.—The entire United States. In carrying on rural work the Home Missions Council is particularly concerned with those areas in America in which church policies are still largely administered by the aid of mission funds.

How Individuals May Secure Services.—On application to the headquarters office.

Publications.—A list of publications is available on request.
Officers.—C. L. White, president; C. E. Vermilya, secretary.
Headquarters Address.—156 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS; RURAL COMMUNITIES DEPARTMENT

Organization. The present Y. W. C. A. organization was formed in 1906. The movement had its beginning in Boston in 1866. The National convention voted in 1909 that a county association of the Y. W. C. A. be an affiliable unit. In 1920 it voted to make the district an affiliable unit.

Purpose. The Y. W. C. A. has not developed with a fixed object in view. Its purpose has evolved and its activities multiplied out of the growing desire among women for development of their powers and their increasing interest in the welfare of all other women. In 1912 the experience of the past and the promise of the future were expressed in the following statement of purpose, recommended to local Associations for use in their constitutions: "To associate young women in personal loyalty to Jesus Christ as Saviour and Lord; to promote growth in Christian character and service through physical, social, mental, and spiritual training, and to become a social force for the extension of the Kingdom of God."

Services Rendered. The county or district association is the principal medium for rural work. This type of Y. W. C. A. organization has been evolved out of the effort to find an effective way of making the methods and resources of the Y. W. C. A. available to rural people. The county is sometimes the unit of organization. More often county lines are disregarded and a larger or smaller area is used as the unit. The county or district organization plan began in the idea of providing for financial coöperation on the part of several rural communities in securing trained leadership. It has found added justification in the fact that this coöperation between communities makes a larger number of contacts possible and produces spiritual values.

The registered Girl Reserve Club plan, corresponding mem-

bership, student-rural leadership training, and the radio programs, are especially designed to serve rural communities and medium sized towns.

Method of Procedure. A distinctive product of the experience of the Y. W. C. A. is its method of procedure. During its development, women of many nations, races, occupations, ages, and classes, have been included, and through their sharing of interests and experience, have come the Association's finest results in the development of the powers and understanding of individual girls and women and in helping women to play their part in building a Christian social order. It is this "method of association" which is the Y. W. C. A.'s best gift to rural life. Through such activities as club programs, conferences, and camps, through meeting girls and women from other communities, often from other races and nationalities, rural girls have an opportunity to live a fuller life, and to gain the understanding which will make them world citizens.

Territory Covered. There are 39 organizations in 105 counties; 446 communities have a community Y. W. C. A. organization. In the organized counties and districts there is a nonurban population of 4,776,199. The Y. W. C. A. members in this population number 13,188 adults and 21,102 minors. Girl Reserve Clubs which do not have intensive supervision are organized in 617 communities. The number of club members is 32,588, and the number of adult advisers 2,354. One-fourth of these clubs are in cities of over 5,000 population, though some of these are in high schools which have students from the rural districts. Of the communities in organized counties or districts reported as rural, about 10 per cent might be classed as suburban. In addition to the rural work reported above, nearly two hundred city and town associations are developing work in the rural areas around them.

How Individuals May Secure Services. By writing to the headquarters of the field in which they live. The address of each field office mav be obtained from the national headquarters.

Officers. Mabel Cratty, General Secretary; Henrietta Roeloffs, Executive of the Rural Communities Department.

Headquarters Address. 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

Organization. The National Child Labor Committee was organized April 15, 1904, and incorporated by Act of Congress, February 21, 1907. It owes its origin to the coming together of several men and women who, in different parts of the country, had been aroused by what they had seen of child labor in some of its worst forms, and by the publication of census figures showing the great extent of the evil.

Purpose. 1. To determine by means of accurate studies the extent and the causes of child labor in manufacturing and commercial industries and in agriculture. 2. To safeguard children against adverse conditions of labor in agriculture and industry. 3. To coöperate with all other interested agencies, organizations and institutions in the promotion of normal child development by increasing and enlarging the opportunities for education, for health and for recreation. 4. To assist in the fuller realization of these rights of childhood through better laws and through more enlightened practices on the part of government, industry and home. 5. To create and foster an intelligent public opinion which will support these aims.

Services Rendered. Naturally, in carrying out the purposes for which it exists, the National Child Labor Committee has been led to a consideration of the effect of the employment of children in agriculture. While the whole agricultural field has not been covered by investigations, enough has been done to show that general farm work is a serious matter with many thousands of children. There can be no question but that many farmers and housewives are using their own children in farm work and housework in such a way as to place handicaps upon them for life. In later years, a new form of agriculture, namely, industrialized agriculture, has been developed in certain sections of the country. This form of agriculture is much more like that of factory work than general farming. The National Child Labor Committee has from time to time made

investigations as to the employment of children in this form of agriculture and has found that children are being used as work hands in a manner which it holds to be harmful.

Method of Procedure. The method which the Committee has used in relation to agricultural child labor is exactly the same as that used in other fields. The Committee's aim has been to make accurate and painstaking studies, to measure carefully the exact effect of this form of child labor on the child himself, its effect upon children's health, its effect upon their education. The facts thus discovered have been published in order to educate the people of the country and stimulate them to legislative action. The Committee maintains legislative workers throughout the states in which the legislatures are in session, who attend hearings and mobilize public opinion in every way possible.

As to the means of accomplishing these things, the Committee has excluded completely from the sphere of its legislative activities every phase of child labor on the farm. It is undoubtedly true that abuses exist in this form of work but it is not held to be the Committee's function, nor that of any federal or state labor department to remedy them.

The Committee has occasionally broadened its activities in the rural field. At the request of local bodies and under local auspices, various intensive studies of child welfare have been carried on. The problems of rural child welfare are entered into extensively here—those of rural recreation, health, poor relief, institutional care, etc.

Territory Covered. The entire United States.

How Individuals May Secure Services. On application to the Child Labor Committee.

Publications and Exhibits. The Committee publishes *The American Child* monthly, and various pamphlets and reports. A list of these is available from the headquarters office.

Officers. Samuel McCune Lindsay, Chairman; Wiley H. Swift, Acting General Secretary.

Headquarters Address. 215 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC WELFARE CONFERENCE; RURAL LIFE BUREAU OF THE SOCIAL ACTION DEPARTMENT

Organization. The National Catholic Welfare Conference has been organized by the Archbishops and the Bishops of the Catholic Church in the United States. The Rural Life Bureau was established in February, 1920.

Purpose. The purpose of the Rural Life Bureau is to serve Catholic dioceses, parishes, organizations and individuals with information and advice concerning rural economic and social work.

Services Rendered. The Bureau makes available to rural parishes methods and facilities for improving the work of the local parish. It has organized the National Catholic Rural Life Conference which has met annually since the first meeting in St. Louis in November, 1923. This is a voluntary organization of Catholic clergy and laity for the promotion of rural welfare. This conference has a full-time executive secretary who also serves as editor of the conference publication *Catholic Rural Life.*

The Catholic Rural Life Conference is interested in: promotion of the coöperative movement; wider use of the facilities offered by the agricultural colleges; improved conveniences in the rural home; better rural education; better health facilities; boys' and girls' club work; religious education through vacation schools and religious correspondence courses.

Method of Procedure. The national organization has no funds or personnel for any local activities. It works through the parish which is the local unit in Catholic rural life work. The Diocesan Relations Committee of the Catholic Rural Life Conference now consists of representatives from forty dioceses.

Territory Covered. The United States.

How Individuals May Secure Services. On application to the Bureau.

Publications. *Catholic Rural Life* is published monthly at Des Moines, Iowa, at $1.00 per year.

Officers. Director of the Rural Life Bureau, Rev. E. T. O'Hara; Editor of *Catholic Rural Life*, Rev. M. B. Schiltz.

Headquarters Address. Eugene, Oregon.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS AND PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS; COUNTRY LIFE DEPARTMENT

Organization. Washington, D. C., February, 1897, by Mrs. Theodore N. Birney and Mrs. Phoebe Hirst.

Purpose. Child-welfare in home, school, church and state.

Services Rendered. Organization of parent-teacher associations in schools and churches; mothers' clubs in communities; legislation for women and children; kindergarten extension; literature and loan papers; Americanization; rural welfare in home and school.

The Country Life Department, directed by the national Chairman, assisting the state chairmen, adapts the work of any standing committee to rural needs. It is coöperating closely with the United States Department of Agriculture and the Bureau of Education. Its present especial interests are the establishment of parent-teacher associations in all rural schools, and the improvement of all rural conditions.

Method of Procedure. National, state (and in most states, district and county) organizations, operate through parent-teacher associations and mothers' clubs in schools and churches. Coöperation with national and state departments of health, education and agriculture and with state universities.

Territory Covered. The United States, Hawaii and Alaska.

How Individuals May Secure Services. Individuals or groups may apply to the state or national officers, for information, literature, and assistance in organization or in any phase of child-welfare work covered by the scope of the Congress.

Publications. Literature on thrift, organization, programs, community work, etc., is available.

Officers. Mrs. Arthur C. Watkins, Executive Secretary; Mrs. John B. Cleaver, Chairman Country Life Department.

Headquarters Address. National Education Association Building, 1201 16th St., Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION TOWN AND COUNTRY DEPARTMENT

Organization. The local Associations of the United States are bound together through the National Council, organized in 1924, composed of about 350 men, representing various types of associations and different parts of the country. The National Council has general responsibility for the movement. State and inter-state associations are responsible for the development of national policies and programs within their area.

Purpose. The purpose of the association is best expressed by the definition of a voting member as one who (1) is a member of an evangelical church; or (2) subscribes in writing to the following: "I hereby declare my faith in God, and my acceptance of Jesus Christ as Saviour and Lord. I desire to serve Him and to be His disciple in accordance with the teachings of the New Testament, and to unite with others in the extension of the Kingdom of God. I am in full accord with the following purpose of the Young Men's Christian Associations of the United States and of Canada and commit myself to its voluntary service and support: To lead young men to faith in God through Jesus Christ; to promote their growth into fullness of Christian character; to lead them into active membership in the church of their choice; and to make the extension of the Kingdom of God throughout the world the governing purpose of their lives."

Services Rendered. The program carried on usually includes:

Group work for boys and young men, including Hi-Y Clubs, organized play, life work discussion lectures, talks, evangelism, hikes and expeditions, home duties, community service, a general use of the Christian citizenship program, agricultural projects, etc.

Community events, including father and son gatherings, col-

lege student deputations, county evangelism, discussion groups, find-yourself campaigns, thrift, play days, athletic tests, etc.

State, county and district-wide events, such as older boys' conferences, conventions, camps, etc.

Coöperation with church, school, home, agricultural and social agencies.

These activities are carried on by local volunteer leaders, who give unselfishly of their time and effort. Professional leaders, town and country secretaries, are also being trained in colleges and summer schools. One hundred seventy-four men are giving their entire time to town and country service, but in addition to this number many state secretaries are giving their major attention to this field and there is a growing interest among city secretaries also.

Method of Procedure. The National Council and many of the state organizations have town and country departments which aim to carry to the towns, villages and rural communities the program, ideas and genius of the Association movement. This is done in the main by the following methods of administration: (1) The county work plan, which organizes a county Association and enlists a county committee of citizens to direct its work and employs a county secretary, paid by volunteer gifts in the county. This county Association organizes local committees in communities and enlists local leaders who are responsible for carrying out the program of the Association. (2) The county branch Association, in which the city Association assumes definite responsibility for the town and country communities in its county or district. A branch association is organized, which functions throughout the county or district, in the same way as the county work plan above noted. There is an added value, however, in providing the facilities of city buildings and the service of city secretaries, for the activities of town and country boys and men. (3) Service by state committees—In many states, especially those having scattered town and country population, the state committees serve this field by coöperating with the school and church in the organization of local groups, especially Hi-Y Clubs, which seek "to create, maintain and

extend throughout the school and community high standards of Christian character."

Territory Covered. Town and country work of the Association is intensively organized in 107 counties and in 1380 communities. There are 5,988 men serving on committees and 1,626 are giving at least one night a week to the leadership of organized groups. The total membership is 37,476. Of this number about 25,000 are boys. Under the less intensive plan organized by state committees there are recorded 976 local high school groups in as many different communities, reaching 24,630 boys.

Officers. John R. Mott, General Secretary; Town and Country Department, Albert E. Roberts.

Headquarters Address. 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION; RURAL DEPARTMENT

Organization. The National Education Association was organized in Philadelphia in 1857. The Department of Rural Education had its beginnings in the various rural interests of the association but was officially organized at Chicago in February, 1919. It has held semi-annual meetings in February and July of each year. It is one of 21 departments of the National Education Association.

Purpose. The general purpose of the National Education Association is "to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States." The more specific purposes of the Department of Rural Education of the N. E. A. are to facilitate discussion of the problems of rural education, to make constructive studies and disseminate information in this field, to further the efforts and increase the efficiency of persons engaged in rural education service, and to correlate all rural activities of the N. E. A. proper and promote the general advancement of rural education and rural welfare throughout the United States.

Services Rendered. The rural department of the N. E. A., being a national organization, does not deal directly with local rural schools or communities. Its function is rather to stimulate general rural effort and render rural assistance to state and county educational leaders. To this end it holds two national conferences on rural education each year, has several standing committees at work conducting constructive studies in the field of rural education, issues annually a number of rural reports and papers through the printed *Proceeding of the National Education Association,* publishes a national *Journal of Rural Education,* and serves as a clearing house for the exchange of information looking toward the progress of rural education. As a department of the National Education Association, this division contributes an appreciable share also towards advancing the general platform and program of the Association.

Territory Covered at Present. In a general way this organization covers the entire United States since all the state superintendents, practically all county superintendents and many rural teachers are included in its membership. Its territory cannot, however, be definitely defined by counties or geographic units.

Officers. President, A. F. Harman; Secretary, Mabel Carney.

Headquarters Address. National Education Association Building, 1201 16th Street, Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL GRANGE OF THE PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY

Organization. Organized as a fraternity at Washington, D. C., in 1867.

Purpose. To be a national farmer's fraternity for fraternal, educational, social, and economic benefits to farmers.

Services Rendered. Regular meetings, community service, educational, social, state and national legislative service.

Method of Procedure. Usual form of fraternal organization, coöperation with other organizations, counties, state and national legislative committees.

Territory Covered. Thirty-three states of the United States. There are approximately 8,000 subordinate and county Granges. These Granges average two meetings monthly.

How Individuals May Secure Services. By becoming members of the order.

Publications. *National Grange Monthly* and the several state publications.

Officers. L. J. Taber, Master; C. M. Freeman, Secretary.

Headquarters Address. 970 College Avenue, Columbus, Ohio.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING

Organization. Formed in 1912 by individuals interested in insuring to the public the best kind of public health nursing service.

Purpose. To stimulate and standardize the work of the public health nurses; to further coöperation between public health nurses and all those interested in public health work.

Services Rendered. The Organization attempts to fit "the right nurse to the right work" by a vocational service used by both employers of nurses and nurses seeking positions; acts as the division of nursing of the American Child Health Association; offers field service to state organizations, communities or organizations which want help on a particular problem; maintains a library which prepares bibliographies and reading lists; offers statistical information about public health nursing; offers help in the study of problems in the education of public health nurses; maintains a depository for credentials of nurses and gives a "personnel rating" to organizations employing nurses.

Method and Procedure. The Organization does not administer public health nursing. It is rather a service agency for those who do administer it. Its service is always indirect to both rural and urban communities. Rural organizations employing public health nurses are eligible for membership on the same terms as city organizations.

Territory Covered. All parts of the United States.

How Individuals May Secure Services. Nurses and associate nurses may become members and organizations employing nurses may become "corporate members."

Publications. A monthly magazine, *The Public Health Nurse.* Reprints of magazine articles, pamphlets and publicity material of value in public health nursing. Help is given in preparing publicity material to nurses who wish to interpret public health nursing.

Officers. Anne A. Stevens, General Director; Theresa Kraker, Assistant Director.

Headquarters Address. 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City.

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

Organization. Organized in 1906. (Not incorporated.)

Purpose. To secure a wholesome amusement and recreation opportunity for young and old; to help cities, towns, rural and small communities to secure adequate year-round recreational opportunities, and to make the spare time of America count most for citizenship.

Services Rendered. The Playground and Recreation Association of America is helping in the rural recreation problem in several different ways; e.g., through the preparation and distribution of a special rural recreation handbook which contains information on rural play problems. The Association is represented at a number of rural conferences, in order to bring to these conferences what help the Association can give to those who are working on rural recreation in their home communities.

Through the National Physical Educational Service which it maintains, the Association has helped a number of national organizations to secure state laws requiring physical education in the schools of each state, which affects the outdoor play and physical life of many rural and small town school children. This service has helped to secure legislation in 22 states, and where physical education is in operation it serves to give a free exchange of information between state physical education departments.

National physical fitness tests have been worked out for the Association by committees and experts and are being widely used in rural districts. Through these tests rural boys and girls are finding out whether or not they have attained the minimum physical standards for their age groups.

Many special articles on rural recreation have been prepared by the Association and published in the rural magazines. From time to time the Association receives reports of rural recreation developments resulting from special articles in the monthly magazine of the Association. In some instances workers from rural districts have attended play institutions and schools conducted by the Association and then returned to their home communities better trained for the rural recreation programs which they wished to develop.

The Association has helped in two counties to secure a full time recreation worker under the county commissioner whose time is devoted entirely to serving the small communities within these counties.

Method of Procedure. Individuals and communities are served both directly and through local organizations.

Territory Covered. Correspondence is received from practically every state in the United States. Last year more than 20,000 inquiries were received in the mails for help along dramatic, musical, social and physical recreation lines.

Publications. A list of publications may be secured on request.

Officers. Joseph Lee, President; Gustavus T. Kirby, Treasurer; H. S. Braucher, Secretary. Correspondence and Consultation Bureau, George D. Butler.

Headquarters Address. 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION; DEPARTMENT OF RECREATION

Organization. The Russell Sage Foundation was established in 1907 and the work in recreation began the same year.

Purpose. The Russell Sage Foundation has for its object "the improvement of social and living conditions." The De-

partment of Recreation seeks to aid in the realization of the above object by encouraging local action in providing means for the wholesome use of free time by both adults and children, and in promoting adequate physical training activities for all school children.

Services Rendered. The major part of the Department's work has been in cities but it is giving increased attention to the recreation and physical training problems of rural communities. It makes studies of typical local conditions, reports its findings, counsels with local groups and individuals through correspondence or personal conference. It acts as a bureau of information on local undertakings in the field of its work. The subjects on which the Department of Recreation gives advice and information are: Equipment and Administration of Playgrounds; Games, Entertainments and Socials; Athletics and Sports; Physical Training and Gymnasium; Dancing; Dramatics, Pageants and Festivals; Story-Telling; Motion Pictures; Community, Social and Civic Centers; Boys' and Girls' Organizations and Clubs; Camping; Home Recreations and Handicrafts; School and Home Gardens; Public Baths and Swimming Pools; Study Courses for Recreation and Community Center Leaders.

Method of Procedure. The procedure in the main has been described under the paragraph above entitled "Services Rendered." The Foundation does not support or supervise local social work of any character.

Territory Covered. The United States.

How Individuals May Secure Services. On application to the Foundation.

Publications. Some of the publications issued by the department that have a bearing on recreation in rural communities are: Recreation Legislation; Group Athletics for Boys; Group Athletics for Girls; Community Center Activities; Sources of Information on Play and Recreation; Motion Pictures for Schools, Churches, Clubs and Community Center.

Officers. John M. Glenn, General Director; Lee Hanmer, Recreation Department.

Headquarters Office. 130 East 22nd Street, New York City.

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION; RURAL EDUCATION DIVISION

Organization. In 1915 the rural work of the Bureau of Education was organized in the form of the Rural Education Division.

Purpose. To promote the cause of rural education and to disseminate educational information of value to the public and to school officials engaged in rural education.

Services Rendered. The work of the division falls into three major lines of endeavor. Service in the field, including educational surveys, research investigation, promoting the cause of education by conferences, publications, correspondence and general advisory service.

Important among the special activities of the division and typical of the needs of rural education are: secondary education of farm children; centralization of small schools and districts; administrative reorganization for efficiency in control and support; teachers' needs and improvement in the field of teacher preparation; supervision of instruction.

Territory Covered. The entire United States.

Publications. A list of publications is available from the Division.

Officers. John N. Tigert, Commissioner of Education; Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, Chief, Rural Education Division.

Headquarters Address. Washington, D. C.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE; DIVISION OF FARM POPULATION AND RURAL LIFE OF THE BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

Organization. By the Secretary of Agriculture, June, 1919.

Purposes. Research in farm population and in the conditions and standards of living of farmers in the United States.

Services Rendered. Publicity of studies (made in different parts of the United States) through the channels of the office of extension work of the Department of Agriculture and of the

extension divisions of the Land-grant Colleges to rural communities.

Method of Procedure. A request from a state college or university to the Bureau of Agricultural Economics results in a special agreement of coöperation. Research projects on the problems of farmers are undertaken in coöperation with colleges of agriculture, state universities and the like.

Territory Covered. The territory covered by these research projects is limited to the United States.

How Individuals May Secure Services. Individuals or communities may secure the results arrived at by the Division on request.

Publications. The results of research studies are usually made available through bulletins. Certain exhibits have also been prepared.

Officers. Dr. C. J. Galpin, in charge of Farm Population and Rural Life.

Headquarters Address. Washington, D. C.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE; EXTENSION SERVICE

Organization. Coöperative extension work in agriculture and home economics was authorized by the Smith-Lever Act, May 8, 1914, and related federal and state legislation. This act provided funds to be matched for the most part from sources within the states, where they are to be administered through the agricultural colleges.

Purpose. The act defines the purpose of the work as follows: "Coöperative agricultural extension work shall consist of the giving of instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending or resident in said colleges in the several communities, and imparting to such persons information on said subjects through field demonstrations, publications, and otherwise; and this work shall be carried on in such a manner as may be mutually agreed upon by the Secretary

of Agriculture and the state agricultural college or colleges receiving the benefits of this act."

Services Rendered. At present about 2,100 counties have agricultural agents (men), 900 counties have home demonstration agents (women) and 170 counties have leaders of boys' and girls' clubs, working under the Extension Service. There are also about 425 state leaders and assistants, usually with headquarters at the agricultural colleges, who supervise and supplement the work of the county workers.

The duties of the county agent are to bring to the farmers of his county on their own farms the results of scientific research by means of demonstrations which will influence farmers in putting them into practice. He gives instruction in farm management, purchasing and marketing. He also assists the economic and social forces working for the improvement of agriculture and country life.

The county home demonstration agent coöperates with women and girls and gives them instruction in topics relating to homemaking, including income-yielding industries, food preservation, nutrition, clothing and textiles, personal hygiene and home sanitation, housing, household management. Assistance is also given in community enterprises.

The leader of boys' and girls' club work organizes clubs among boys and girls between the ages of 10 and 18. Club work consists of the performance of some practical work on the farm or in the home and in the keeping of records of this work. There are also numerous extension schools and the work of the state specialists supplements the services rendered by the county workers.

Method of Procedure. The Extension Service is that branch of the United States Department of Agriculture which represents the Secretary of Agriculture in the administration and supervision of all coöperative extension work in agriculture and home economics. Through the office of coöperative extension work, it gives direct financial aid in the employment of the county and home demonstration agents and boys' and girls' club leaders, supervises the distribution of funds appropriated by

the federal government, and coördinates the work of the various bureaus and offices of the department with the work that is being carried on by the state colleges of agriculture.

The coöperative agreement between the Department of Agriculture and the state colleges of agriculture provides that each college shall organize and maintain an administrative division for the management and conducting of extension work in agriculture and home economics. At the head of this devision is a director selected by the college and acceptable to the department, who administers all the extension work in the state, and to whom the state agents and other extension workers at the college and in the counties are responsible.

In order to make the work effective within the county, local organizations, such as farm bureaus, county councils, or county boards of agriculture, have been formed to coöperate with the state colleges of agriculture and the United States Department of Agriculture in employing the county agricultural and home demonstration agents and in aiding them in carrying on their work. These county organizations are chiefly composed of farm men and women. As a part of the organization, there are local clubs or committees who aid the agent in the different communities of the county. The county agents also have helpful relations with a large number of farm organizations representing a great variety of agricultural interests and with various welfare organizations dealing with rural problems.

Territory Covered. The United States.

How Individuals May Secure Services. Any person desiring the coöperation of the state agricultural college in solving farm, home, rural, or community problems, should first make application to the county agricultural or home demonstration agent, if there is one; if there is no agent in the county, then to the director of extension at the state agricultural college. Counties desiring to organize for extension work should take the matter up with the state director of extension.

Officers. C. W. Warburton, Director of Extension Work; C. B. Smith, Chief, Office of Coöperative Extension Work;

J. A. Evans, Assistant Chief, Office of Coöperative Extension Work.

Headquarters. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR; CHILDREN'S BUREAU

Organization. By Act of Congress, approved April 9, 1912.

Purpose. To investigate and report to the Department upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life, and especially to investigate the questions of infant mortality, the birth rate, orphanages, juvenile courts, desertion, dangerous occupations, accidents and diseases of children, employment, and legislation affecting children in the several states and territories.

Services Rendered. 1. Special studies:

(a) Those primarily concerned with the health of children and mothers. These studies have been made in a number of rural communities, and have usually included health conferences conducted by a physician, assisted by a nurse and a clerk, and studies of home and community conditions affecting the health of the children and their mothers.

(b) Those primarily concerned with conditions affecting the welfare of child workers in rural communities. In the course of a series of studies of this kind begun in 1920 and now being completed, detailed information on the work and schooling and other factors affecting their development and welfare has been obtained for approximately 12,000 children under 16 years of age in 14 states in different sections of the country. The most recent studies were made in Washington, Oregon and Illinois.

(c) Those primarily concerned with dependency and delinquency. Studies have been made of the local community and the child in need of special care, showing the extent of the problems of dependency, neglect, and delinquency, physical handicap and mental defect, present methods of dealing with these problems and possibilities for more adequate service. In 1924, 30 counties of Georgia and 7 counties of Pennsylvania were studied, none of them containing cities of more than

100,000 inhabitants. In order to ascertain the methods of organization and the results obtained in pioneer states in the development of county work, brief studies were made in selected counties of three states—New York, Minnesota, and North Carolina.

2. State activities under the Maternity and Infancy Act. Although not limited to such communities, this Act was intended primarily to promote the welfare of mothers and babies in rural areas and small cities, and principal attention has been given to these communities by the states coöperating. Forty-one states and Hawaii have accepted the provisions of the Act—all the states except Maine, Massachusetts, Vermont, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Kansas, and Illinois. State activities which have special reference to rural areas include the following: development and extension of facilities for reaching areas where no maternity and infancy work is done; extension of public health nursing service; consultation with doctors in remote districts by leading pediatricians and obstetricians of the states. Other activities include establishment of maternal and infant health centers; stimulation of better birth registration; improvement in milk supplies; studies of the midwife problem and supervision of midwives' work; nutrition classes and conferences; general educational activities through literature, exhibits, lectures, demonstrations, mothers' classes and correspondence courses. A colored doctor on the staff of the Federal Children's Bureau is at present assisting the Tennessee Health Department in an investigation and educational campaign among colored midwives of the state.

How Individuals May Secure Services. Studies are made in so far as available funds will permit, and are usually in response to requests by state commissions engaged in studying and revising children's laws and other state or local organizations. Publications are distributed free as far as the printing fund permits, and exhibit material is loaned on condition of payment of transportation charges. So far as possible the Bureau endeavors to serve as a clearing bureau of information on child welfare subjects.

Publications. A list of publications, exhibit material and lantern lectures is available on request.

Officials of the Bureau. Chief, Grace Abbott; Assistant to the Chief, Katharine F. Lenroot.

Headquarters Address. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

UNITED STATES PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE

Organization. Organized by Acts of Congress of 1798 (as U. S. Marine Hospital Service, and 1912, as the U. S. Public Health Service).

Purpose. (a) To prevent through quarantine and immigration inspection the introduction of communicable disease from foreign countries into the United States. (b) To investigate the diseases of man and conditions relating to propagation and spread thereof and to issue publications for the information of the public about the findings of such investigations. (c) To prevent the spread of epidemic diseases between the states. (d) To coöperate with state and local governmental and civic agencies in the conduct of demonstration work for the prevention of disease and the promotion of health. (e) To render medical and surgical relief to sick and disabled seamen of the Merchant Marine Service, to beneficiaries of the War Risk Insurance act and to other groups of persons entitled under acts of Congress to such treatment.

Services Rendered. The special work of the Public Health Service in rural communities is conducted on a coöperative basis with state and local health departments and with various civic agencies, for the establishment and maintenance for demonstration purposes of adequate or improved local health service for counties or groups of townships. In these coöperative demonstration projects any and all branches of public health work may be taken up. Efforts are concentrated from time to time upon the different branches of health work which appear to offer the best prospects for satisfactory returns from an investment of the funds available.

In some of the states, officers of the Public Health Service are detailed to work with state health departments in the study of rural health problems and in stimulating the development and maintenance of county health service. In the counties selected for demonstration the duly elected or appointed county health officers are given the status of field agents in the Public Health Service. Instead of a county, a group of townships in some instances is adopted as the unit for the demonstration project, but in such instances the district must be sufficient in area and population to enable whole time personnel to work to economic advantage.

Method of Procedure. In the average county in which a coöperative project is being carried out the county force consists of a whole time health officer, an office clerk, one or more health nurses and one or more sanitary inspectors. Fifty per cent of the funds for the support of the work are usually furnished from official county sources. The proportion furnished by the Public Health Service averages about 25 per cent. The remainder is usually furnished by the state health department or by various civic agencies. Monthly reports from the demonstration projects are sent by the county health officers to the headquarters of each of the participating agencies. Inspection of the projects is made from time to time by field directors of the Public Health Service, by representatives of the state health department, or both. The members of the working force are appointed or elected according to the requirements of county laws and regulations, but they must be, on account of their apparent or demonstrated qualifications, acceptable to all of the official participating agencies. The county health officer, as the head of the demonstration project, is expected to determine by his studies the health needs of the county and with advice and assistance from the inspecting officers of the Public Health Service and the state department to carry out an adequate program.

Territory Covered. Seventy-nine counties or areas comparable to counties in 19 states.

How Individuals May Secure Services. The coöperation of

the Public Health Service in rural health work is secured by requests from the proper county officials endorsed by the state health department. On account of the limited appropriation for coöperative rural health work of the Public Health Service not all invitations from counties can be accepted. Therefore in the selection of counties from which invitations have been received, consideration is given to both the needs of the situation and the prospects for successful demonstration. In this respect consideration is given to the promises of support from civic organizations.

Publications. Various publications and exhibits of the Public Health Service are available for distribution in the demonstration projects.

Headquarters Address. U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, D. C.

GENERAL INDEX

Adams, Ralph S., 66
Agricultural Bureau of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 47
  credits act, 1923, 96, 97
  legislation, national, 1921-25, 94
  policies of European nations, 143
  production, prices and income, 1919-1925, 126
    agricultural production since 1919, 128
    income from agricultural production, 136
    purchasing power of farmer's dollar and products, 135
    price readjustment, the, 134
    rate of return on capital and management, 137
    reward for operator's capital and management, 139
    reward for farmer's effort, 141
  production since 1919, 128
American Child Health Association, 160
  Cotton Growers' Exchange, 108
  Country Life Association, 56, 153, 154, 156
  Farm Bureau Federation, 161
American Girl, The, 172
  Home Economics Association, 162
  Library Association, 163
American National Red Cross, 50, 51, 165, junior, 166
  Sociological Society, 45, publications, Vol. XIX, 3, 7
American Society of Landscape Architects, 32
Animals on farms, 130
Annual report of the Rockefeller Foundation, 1924, 6
Art, development of rural, 26
  art extension in Illinois, 31
  colleges of agriculture, 29
  dramatic, 27
  landscape background for American rural life, 31
  music, 33
  religious drama, 27
Art of Helping People Out of Trouble, 49
Arvold, Alfred, 9

Balkan land reform, 149
Baseball in rural communities, 77, 78
Bases of procedure in rural social work, 58
Battaglia del grano, 145
Battle of wheat in Italy, 145
Bean, L. H., 126
"Behind the boom in Florida," 56
Blackshear, Laura E., 30
Borglum, Gutzon, 26
Boy Scouts, 51
British agricultural policy, 143, 145

Brunner, Edmund de S., 66
Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 13, 70
of dairying, 104
of Education, United States, 37, 40, 41, 188
of Home Economics, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 13
Burnham, Ernest, 37
Butterfield, Kenyon L., 156, 159
Butter standard act, 103

California Fruit Growers' Exchange, 109
Capper-Volstead act, 1922, 98, 99
Carolina folk plays, 27, 28
playmakers, 27
Carver, Thomas N., 46
Catholic Church, the rural work of, 60
early developments, 60
policies, 62
program of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, 63
rural Catholic education, 62
Catholic Rural Life, 65, 178
Rural Life Conference, 65
Welfare Conference, National, Rural Life Bureau, 61, 65, 178
Census Analysis of American villages, 1, 9, 11, 12
fourteenth, 2
Chapin, Robert C., 23
Child Health Association, American, 160
Labor Committee, National, 176
Children's Bureau, U. S. Dept. of Labor Bulletin, No. 117, 52, 53
work of the bureau, 192
Clark, Anna Mansfield, 26
Mrs. Frances E., 34
Commercial classification of cotton, the, 102
Committee on rural social work of the American Country Life Association, 49
Cooperation in the United States during the present decade, (1923), 107
Cooperative Education Association of Virginia, 57
marketing movement, the, 107
accomplishments and limitations, 113
extent of cooperative marketing, 107
social aspects of cooperative marketing, 115
types of cooperative organizations, 108
Cornell dramatic club, 28
Cost of living and retail prices of food, 23, 25
of living in the United States, 21, 23, 25
Cotton standards act, 1923, 101
Country theater, the, 29
the little, 27
County Organization for Child Care and Protection, 52
Social Service Leagues of Iowa, 57
Credit, farm, 118
Crop acreages in the United States, 128
production in the United States, 131

Dana, Malcolm W., 71
de Schweinetz, Karl D., 49
Dictionary of Tariff Information, 95
Douglass, H. Paul, 51

Drummond, A. M., 29
Eastern states exposition, the, 33

Education and training for social work, 50
  Association, National, Rural Department, 182
  rural, 37
    government agencies, 44
    higher institutions, 42
    public school, 37
    research and publicity, 46
    voluntary organizations, 45
Eisteddfod movement, 34
English agricultural policy, 145
European agricultural policies, 143
Extension Service, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 188

Farm Bureau Federation, American, 161
  credit and farm taxation, 118
  population and rural life, Division in U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 188
  population in selected counties, 9
  taxation, 118
  women's organizations, 85
    changes in form of organization, 90
    early organizations, 85
    present-day conditions and organizations, 86
    trends in administration, 89
    trends in function, 91
Federal Bureau of Education, 37, 40, 41, 188
  Council of Churches, 30, 69, 169
  farm loan system, 95, 119
  highways act, 1921, 104
Federal intermediate credit banks, 97, 120
  Reserve Board, 96
  "University For The People," 45
Federation and consolidation of rural churches, 71
Ferris, Emery N., 41
Fletcher, Robert Samuel, 94
Freight rate investigations, 105
Fry, C. Luther, 1, 9, 11, 12
Frysinger, Grace E., 85

Galpin, C. J., 5
  C. J., and Larson, Veda B., 9
Gillette, J. M., 2, 4, 5
Girl Scouts, 171
Grain futures act, 1922, 100
Grange, National, of the Patrons of Husbandry, 183

Hanmer, Lee F., 75
Heironymus, R. E., 31
Hobson, Asher, 143
Hoey, Jane M., and others, 55
Home Economics, American Association, 162
  journal of, 162
Home Missions Council, 173
How Shall Country Youth Be Served? 51

Income, agricultural, 136
  from agricultural production, 136
Information Service, 170
Institute of Social and Religious Research, 69
Interchurch World Movement, 69
Intermediate credit banks, federal, 97, 120, 121
Interrelation of the work of national social agencies in

fourteen American communities, 55
Iowa plan for organization of a county social service league, 57
Israel, Henry, 159
Italian agricultural situation, 145

Jesness, O. B., 112
Joint Commission of Agricultural Inquiry, 95
stock land banks, 120
Journal of Home Economics, 161
Journal of Rural Education, 27

Kester, Katherine, 29
Kirkpatrick, E. L., 13
Koch, Frederick H., 27

Land Grant College Association, 43
Landis, B. Y., 58, 107
Land reform,
Balkan, 149
English, 146
Larger parish plan, the, 71
Larson, Veda B. and Galpin, C. J., 9
League of Women Voters, 87
Lee, Porter R., and others, 55
Libraries, county, 164
Library Association, American, 163
Lively, C. E., 1, 3
Lloyd George, David, 147
Lowell, James Russell, 26

Macklin, Theodore, 113
Meat animals slaughtered, 133
Methodist Episcopal Department of Rural Work, 167
Miller, E. E., 113
Missionary Education Movement, 70
Monmouth County (N. J.) League for Social Service, 52
Monthly Labor Review, 21, 23, 25
Morgan, Mrs. Rose, 35
Morse, H. N., 66
Muldoon, Rt. Rev. Peter J., 63
Music at state fairs, 33
at the fairs, 34
"Mutual Improvement Association" among farm women in Maryland, 85

National agricultural legislation, 1921-25, 94
agricultural credit, 95
butter standard act, 1923, 103
Capper-Volstead act, 1922, 98
cotton standards act, 1922, 101
establishment of dairy bureau, 1924, 104
federal highways act, 1921, 104
filled milk bill, 1923, 103
freight rate investigations, 1925, 105
grain futures act, 1922, 100
packers and stockyards act, 1921, 100
Purnell act, 1925, 105
tariff acts of 1921 and 1922, 95
Amateur Athletic Federation, 77, 78
Board of the Y. W. C. A., 174
Bureau for Advancement of Music, 35
Catholic Welfare Conference, 61, 65, 178
Child Labor Committee, 176

National Conference on Outdoor Recreation, 32
Council of Agencies Engaged In Rural Social Work, 56, 153, 155
principles and plan of organization, 157
projects of the national council, 158
Council of the Y. M. C. A., 179
Education Association, Rural Department, 182
Information Bureau, 55
Music Week, 35
Organization For Public Health Nursing, 184

O'Hara, E. V., 60
Oklahoma Cotton Growers Association, 110
Organization of county and state memory contests, 34
Organized rural recreation, 75
baseball situation, 77
formation of recreational organizations, 75
training of play leaders, 76
typical projects, 79

Packers and stockyards act, 1921, 100
Palmer, A. W., 102
Parent-teacher associations, 179
Parent-Teacher Associations, National Congress of Mothers and, Country Life Department, 179
Patrons of Husbandry, National Grange of, 183
Pettit, Walter W., and others, 55
"Play and the Farmer," 29
Playground and Recreation Association, 36, 185
Pond, Bremer W., 32
Population problems, 5
rural, 1
age distribution, 10
definition, 1
farm population in selected counties, 9
increase and decrease, 2
increase and decrease in Ohio, 3, 4
occupation, 11
open country, 1
race and nationality, 10
sex proportions, 9
Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A., Town and Country Department, 169
Price, readjustment, 134
Proceedings of the seventh country life conference, 49
Professional education, 39
standards, 38
Profession of social work, 50
Protestant rural churches, the situation among, 66
growth and decline of churches, 67
membership, 67
rural pastors, 67
statistics of churches, 66
Sunday schools, 67
work of church organizations, 68
Public health nurse, 185
Nursing, National Organization for, 184
Service, United States, 194
Purchasing power of farmer's dollar and products, 135
Purnell act, 1925, 105

Ramsdell, Leroy A., 48
Rate of return on farm capital and management, 137

Recreation, organized rural, 75
Red Cross, American National, 50, 51, 165,
junior, 166
Religious Dramas, 1924, 30
Report of the Commissioner of Labor, 18th Annual, 23
Reuter, E. B., 5
Reward for farmer's effort, 141
for farm operator's capital and management, 139
Ringland, Arthur, 32
Roosevelt's Country Life Commission, 68
Rural America, 47, 155
Rural Catholic school attendance, 62
Rural child labor, 176, 177
church departments, 68
demography, 5
Evangel, The, 168
Life Bureau, National Catholic Welfare Conference, 61, 65, 178
Sociology, Gillette, 2, 4, 5, 7
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Recreation, 186
Russian agricultural program, 148
Ryan, Lucy Chamberlain, 56

School of religious drama, 30
support, 38
Smith-Hughes law, 43
Smith-Lever law, 44
Social Aspects of Farmers' Cooperative Marketing, 58, 170
Social Work, 50
work, rural, 48
availability of social work to rural communities, 50
emerging problems, 54
occupation of rural territory by national agencies, 50
problem of duplication, 54
state and local agencies, 52
support of social work, 57
what is social work? 48
Songs that live, 35
Standard of living among workingmen's families in New York City, 1909, 23
Standards of living, farmers, 13
classification of goods used, 15
composition of households and families, 14
comparison of farm and industrial families, 21
distribution of values as an index of standards of living, 24
family living purchased, 18
how total value of family living is distributed, 20
localities studied, 13
studies of agricultural colleges, 13
total value of family living, 20
value of family living furnished by the farm, 16
variations in distribution of values, 22
State Charities Aid Association of New York, 50
park movements, 33
Steiner, Jesse, 58
Survey Graphic, 9
Switzerland, agricultural policy in, 144

Tariff information, dictionary of, 95
Taxation, farm, 118
Taylor, Henry C., 116
Thompson, W. C., 5, 6

Town And Country Church In The United States, The, 66
Tremaine, C. M., 35

United States Bureau of Education, Rural Education Division, 37, 40, 41, 188
United States Department of Agriculture, 13, 46, 70, 188, 189
United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, 192
United States Department of the Interior, 45
United States Public Health Service, 194
University Players, 27
United States Tariff Commission, 95

Victor Talking Machine Company, 34
Villages, Census Analysis of, 1, 9, 11, 12
Vincent, George E., 6

Wall, Norman J., 118
War Finance Corporation, 96, 120
Waugh, Frank A., 31
What is Social Work? 50
Wilson, M. L., 116
Wilson, Dr. Warren H., 68
Women's organizations, farm, 85

Yearbook of the United States Department of Agriculture, 1924, 98
Y.M.C.A., 51, 56, 69, 180
Y.W.C.A., 51, 56, 69, 174

INDEX TO PART II

The National Council of Agencies Engaged in Rural Social Work

American Country Life Association, 153
American Child Health Association, 160
American Farm Bureau Federation, 161
American Home Economics Association, 162
American Library Association, 163
American National Red Cross, 165

Board of Home Missions and Church Extension of the Methodist Episcopal Church; Department of Rural Work, 167
Board of National Missions, Presbyterian Church of the U.S.A.; Town and Country Department, 169

Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, 169

Girl Scouts, 171

Home Missions Council, 173

National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association; Rural Communities Department, 174
National Child Labor Committee, 176
National Catholic Welfare Conference, 178
National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Association; Country Life Department, 179
National Council of the Young Men's Christian Association; County Work Department, 180
National Education Association; Rural Education Department, 182
National Grange, 183
National Organization for Public Health Nursing, 184

Playground and Recreation Association of America, 185

Russell Sage Foundation; Recreation Department, 186

U. S. Bureau of Education; Rural Education Division, 188
U. S. Department of Agriculture; Division of Farm Population and Rural Life, 188
U. S. Department of Agriculture; Extension Service, 189
U. S. Department of Labor; Children's Bureau, 192
U. S. Public Health Service, 194